

**CLEARING CULTURAL CLUTTER:
EXPERIENCES OF JAPANESE NATIVE SPEAKER
TEACHERS TEACHING JAPANESE IN NEW ZEALAND**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers teaching Japanese in New Zealand. The main purpose of this study is to analyse and understand their experiences, to evaluate the extent to which their experiences endorse previous research in the area, and to identify aspects of their experiences that may be universal to immigrant teachers in general or specific to Japanese immigrant teachers in the New Zealand context.

This study therefore adopts a qualitative research approach. Findings emerge mainly from the analysis of interviews with twenty-five Japanese native speaker teachers and are supplemented by fifty-two written survey responses. Major themes include ways that the teachers' backgrounds influenced their career development decision-making process; differences that teachers expected and found in teaching in New Zealand; difficulties that teachers encountered in New Zealand schools; adjustments that teachers made to fit into teaching in New Zealand; adaptation strategies that they adopted to work effectively in the New Zealand cultural environment; and the teachers' perceptions of working well as Japanese language teachers in New Zealand.

The main findings reveal that the teachers confronted difficulties and challenges similar to those of all beginning teachers, but in their case, specific values they held enabled them to develop useful teaching strategies peculiar to them and make successful adaptations to the New Zealand teaching environment. This successful outcome was influenced by their additional learning experience of having gone through the complexity in teacher development as immigrants.

Previous research demonstrated that teachers' experiences and their values influenced curriculum making, the teaching process and classroom organisation. My research extended these findings by describing more specifically the values and strategies that my participant teachers adopted to teach New Zealand students. In addition to the suggestions made for other teachers, several recommendations are made for future research. This study concluded that immigrant teachers need to continue their learning, utilise skills previously acquired in their own countries, and participate in the new society to make successful adaptation.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This first chapter provides the background of the present research on the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand. It also provides an explanation of the main purpose of the present research, a positional statement of the researcher and an overview of the thesis content.

1. Background of the Present Research

The population of immigrants to New Zealand from Asian countries has dramatically increased since 1990. According to the Statistics New Zealand (2007), the Asian population, which is made up of Chinese, Indian, Korean, Filipino, Japanese, Sri Lankan, Cambodian, Thai and other Asian countries, increased from three per cent in 1991 to 9.2 per cent in 2006 of the total New Zealand population. Within the increase in the Asian population, the Japanese population increased from 2,970 in 1991 to 11,907 in 2006.

The results of the 2001 Census showed 3,411 Japanese people were employed in a variety of occupations in New Zealand industry (Statistics New Zealand, 2002). Education is one occupational area in which nearly three hundred Japanese people have been working. Since there has been an increase in Japanese immigrant numbers and a considerable number of these people are working in education, it would be relevant to explore their experiences in the workplace. The present research therefore focuses on these Japanese people, specifically their experiences as Japanese immigrant teachers working in New Zealand schools.

Teachers' experiences have been the focus of a number of qualitative research projects where participants were observed, interviewed or where auto/biographical accounts were made (He, 1998; Levin, 2001; Phillion, 1999; Smith, 2001). Some researchers utilised metaphors to analyse the complexity of teachers' experiences in teacher development (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995; Bullough, Knowles, and Crow, 1992). These qualitative studies of schools or classrooms provide detailed accounts of teaching across a number of contexts and these accounts help inform teachers of best

practices (Eisner, 1998). Main findings of such studies conclude that teaching is greatly influenced by the teachers' experiences and that teacher values influence curriculum making, the teaching process and classroom organisation.

Although there have been many studies conducted on teachers' experiences, few have explored second/foreign language teachers' experiences. None has previously been conducted among Japanese language teachers outside of Japan. The present research therefore aims to extend previous research through exploring the Japanese teachers' experiences working in New Zealand.

2. Purpose of the Present Research

The present research explores the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand schools. The main purpose of this study is to analyse and understand their experiences, and to evaluate the extent to which their experiences endorse previous research in the area. It aims to identify aspects of their experiences that may be universal to immigrant teachers in general or specific to Japanese immigrant teachers in the New Zealand context. Specifically, the focus of their experiences covers such aspects as career development, immigration and employment, and teacher development. Related to career development, the present research explores how Japanese native speakers developed their career paths to start working as teachers in New Zealand. With reference to immigration and employment, it examines difficulties and problems that the teachers experienced in finding a job as immigrants. With reference to teacher development, it focuses on how the participants learned to become teachers in the New Zealand context. In addition, as a result of participant responses, Japanese cultural values are taken into account when analysing the teachers' experiences. This focus helps clarify their problems and difficulties in teaching and managing classes.

Consistent with the research topic, teachers' experiences, a qualitative research approach is adopted. Fifty-two Japanese native speaker teachers provided written survey responses, and twenty-five of these teachers were interviewed. All responses were transcribed and analysed, using thematic coding, and then interpreted, using "grounded theory" qualitative approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

The research is significant in that it offers a unique, comprehensive picture of the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers who work in New Zealand. Furthermore, the research produces recommendations to help other Japanese native speaker teachers teaching in New Zealand. It is anticipated that the research findings will become valuable resources for various educational institutions in which not only Japanese native speaker teachers but also other immigrant teachers (especially from Asian countries) are working in the New Zealand cultural environment. It is also hoped that the findings of the present research will help improve the ways of learning the language and the culture, and contribute to the development of future planning, especially in the Japanese education programmes set out in New Zealand schools.

3. Positional Statement

Literature suggests that the researcher's position needs to be explained regarding possible values of the researcher that might affect data collection and analysis (Merriam and Associates, 2002). This is because the researcher constructs meaning in connection with his/her own experience. When researchers interview their participants, for instance, their experiences may influence what they ask and what they hear from their participants. If another researcher with different experience were to interview those participants, read their transcripts, and analyse the data, the findings and the interpretations may be different from the interpretation of others because of the different attributes that they have. It is therefore important for researchers to position themselves by describing who they are and why they are doing the research (see also the section "Data Analysis and Strategies regarding Positionality," Chapter Three). The following provides my positional statement as a researcher in the present research.

My interest in teaching Japanese was inspired by my opportunity to help teach in the Department of Japanese at a university in New Zealand where I was doing my MA in Education in 1988–1990. I had never thought of becoming a teacher in Japan, although my major at a university in Japan was Education. I was interested in the fields of educational psychology, counselling and development in adolescence. While I learned counselling skills, I enjoyed studying theories on developmental process of children and adolescents. I therefore continued to study Education at a New Zealand university. During the second year of my study at the

New Zealand university, I received a letter from the Department of Japanese (in Japanese!) that they were looking for a teaching assistant and asking whether I was interested in helping them. I decided to accept this offer because I thought that teaching New Zealand students would become valuable experience for me. This incident led me get interested and involved in teaching. When I started teaching, I was astonished by the fact that so many New Zealand students were interested in learning Japanese. It was the time when Japan was in the economic bubble (see the section “Social Background of Japanese Immigrant Teachers in New Zealand,” Chapter Two). While I was involved in teaching at the university, I wrote my MA thesis entitled “Motivation and Attitudes in Learning Japanese in New Zealand.” I became interested in becoming a qualified teacher in New Zealand through these experiences.

Having lived in New Zealand, I also experienced the difficulty of adapting myself to fit into the New Zealand culture and its system. People from different cultural backgrounds often encounter “well-meaning clashes,” although they are behaving properly and in a socially skilled manner according to the norms in their own culture (Brilsin, 1999, p.10). Well-meaning clashes explain the context where people face a difficulty in sharing the same values because of their different cultural expectations. In New Zealand, I have often experienced finding mismatched expectations. This was because I had received education in Japan up to university level and experienced working in a company in Japan as an office worker for almost ten years. What I had learned and experienced through education and previous work in Japan influenced my cultural values. While maintaining my cultural values, I made some adjustments to adapt to the New Zealand culture. I gradually learned to balance and respect both cultures.

I embarked on my Ph.D. research in March 2004 when I was tutoring Japanese at a university. I had been living in New Zealand for fifteen years, during which I had completed an MA in Education, obtained a Diploma of Teaching, and experienced teaching New Zealand students. When I completed my professional practice course at a College of Education, I applied for a teaching position to work as a qualified teacher for the first time. I experienced failing to get a job many times when I applied for teaching positions. Since then, I have worked as a teacher in

various educational institutions for over twelve years on either a part-time or full-time basis. My present research topic—experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers teaching Japanese in New Zealand—was developed from looking back on my own experience in teaching New Zealand students as a Japanese native speaker teacher at secondary school and tertiary institutions in New Zealand.

My experience of gaining a New Zealand teaching qualification, failing to get a teaching position, and teaching in different New Zealand settings obviously influences the present research. I have, however, used my experience to empathise with participants only. In recording my participants' experiences, I have been rigorous to keep my own experience out of their experiences.

4. Thesis Overview

This thesis comprises ten chapters. Chapter One presents the rationale, which includes the research background, the purpose of the research and the researcher's positional statement.

Chapter Two reviews literature and research relevant to the four main topics of the present research—career development, immigration and employment, Japanese cultural values, and teacher development. The section on career development introduces some theories on career development and discusses the relevance of the different theories in relation to the experiences of the teachers in the present research. The second section presents literature on immigration and employment in which problems and difficulties immigrants faced in finding a job are discussed. It also describes the social background of the Japanese native speaker teachers in the present research, specifically the changing economic situation in Japan. The third section introduces Japanese cultural aspects relevant to the Japanese native speaker teachers in the present research. The last section highlights previous research on teacher development. It focuses on the process of becoming a teacher and effective teaching strategies. It also discusses the use of metaphors that facilitates understanding teacher development.

Chapter Three explains the methodology and method adopted to conduct the present research. Methodology includes an overview of qualitative research, the rationale for using qualitative methods for the present research, methods of inquiry, data analysis, and strategies regarding positionality. Method describes participants' profiles, research tools, research realities, and the process of gaining ethics approval.

Chapter Four presents an overview of the questionnaire respondents, including demographic information, reasons for coming to New Zealand, and work experiences through previous career changes. It also examines the backgrounds of my participants that led to their choice to change careers in Japan and New Zealand. Chapter Five presents the teachers' expectations of teaching positions in New Zealand and their views on the use of teaching qualifications. It explores the experiences of the teachers in applying for a teaching position in New Zealand.

Chapter Six illustrates what teachers had expected in teaching in the New Zealand classroom and what they discovered through actual teaching with reference to the differences between the education systems of Japan and New Zealand. It discusses the difficulties and problems that the teachers experienced when teaching in the New Zealand classroom. Chapter Seven illustrates the adjustments the teachers made to fit the New Zealand education system, including examples of pedagogical practices and classroom management strategies. It also examines other helpful strategies that the teachers used to adapt themselves to teaching in the New Zealand cultural environment.

Chapter Eight highlights effective teaching strategies that the teachers adopted to work effectively in New Zealand schools. It also presents the metaphors described by the teachers to help expand what it means to them to teach in New Zealand. Chapter Nine extends effective teaching strategies that enabled Japanese native speaker teachers to work well as Japanese language teachers in the New Zealand context. It also explores cultural adaptations and work conditions for teaching in New Zealand that the teachers recognised as important factors in continuing to teach in New Zealand. The final chapter concludes the present research. It summarises the main findings and presents suggestions and recommendations. Implications for future research are also discussed.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature on career development, immigration and employment, Japanese cultural values, and teacher development, which are all factors that impact on the present study. The review on career development mainly focuses on career development theories that explore job search, career decision-making, and career planning. The section on immigration and employment reviews the literature and research on acculturation and barriers to employment in New Zealand. Japanese cultural values are also introduced for the purpose of understanding the background of Japanese teachers interviewed in the present research. The last section focuses on different theoretical approaches in teacher development. It also reviews previous research regarding teachers' motivations, the process of becoming a teacher, effective teaching strategies, and metaphor as a means of exploring teaching.

1. Career Development

The Japanese immigrants surveyed in the present study had all selected teaching as their career. This section therefore reviews theories on career development. Firstly, trait-factor theories (e.g., Parsons, 1909), including Holland's (1973) theory of types and Dawis and Lofquist's (1976) theory of work adjustment are described, and critiques are explored. Cultural variations of trait-factor are also examined. Secondly, two theories on career social learning are introduced: social learning theory in career decision-making (SLTCDM) (Krumboltz, 1994) and social cognitive career theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996). Other theories covered in this section include Super's (1957) theory of life stages, planned happenstance theory (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999), and theories in decision-making approaches (Hansen, 1997; Miller-Tiedeman, 1987; Peterson, Sampson, and Reardon, 1991; Tiedeman and O'Hara, 1963). While Super's theory deals with issues over the entire life, planned happenstance theory and decision-making approaches focus more on social changes in career development. The systems theory of career development (Patton and McMahon, 1999) is also reviewed, which provides the overarching framework to incorporate considerations of interconnected systems of influences. Lastly, job search

methods and processes are discussed with reference to research that explored job search behaviour in relation to job search outcomes.

a) Trait-Factor Theory in Career Development

Trait-factor theories comprise those in which the idea of person-environment fit is promoted to explain when a person can find a satisfying career. While this matching quality has experienced some criticism, it still underpins many modern career development theories. In this section, I will describe the theory and its critique. I will also review literature pertinent to cultural diversity (Long, Watanabe, and Tracey, 2006).

(i) Trait-Factor/Type Theory

The earliest theory in vocational guidance developed by Parsons (1909) has been a cornerstone of trait-factor theory. In this theory, Parsons posits that three steps are essential for achieving a wise career choice: the first step is self-analysis for one's aptitudes, abilities, interests, ambitions, resources, limitations, and their causes; the second is to investigate the requirements (tactics) and conditions of success, advantages/disadvantages, opportunities and prospects in different sectors of the labour market; the third is to examine the relationships between these aptitudes and tactics. In addition, he asserts that these three steps should be implemented under the expert guidance of a counsellor. His views have been extensively recognised by many researchers on career development and became the foundation of trait-factor theory. Sharf (2006) defines the terms "trait" and "factor";

The term *trait* refers to a characteristic of an individual that can be measured through testing. *Factor* refers to a characteristic that is required for successful job performance; it also refers to a statistical approach used to differentiate important characteristics of a group of people. Thus, the terms *trait* and *factor* refer to the assessment of characteristics of the person and the job (p.25).

In trait-factor theory, it is suggested that individuals need to understand their own traits and competences and need to gain knowledge of jobs and the labour market. Emphasis is put on the necessity of finding the best match between these two factors. On the basis of trait-factor theory, a large number of assessment instruments such as tests and inventories have been developed to assess the basic traits and factors,

including aptitudes, achievement, interests, values, and personality (for example, College Board Scholastic Assessment Test, Kuder Career Search, Values Scale, California Psychological Inventory). These career assessment instruments have been integrated with occupational information such as the world of work to provide the basis of professional vocational guidance (Sharf, 2006).

As an extension of trait-factor theory, Holland's (1973) theory of types has been widely recognised as a useful career development theory. In his typological theory, there are six personality types: Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C) (RIASEC). His theory focuses on the interaction between these personalities and the environment. He believes that individuals with the same personality tend to work together in the environment that fits their personality type. Thus, there are also six work environment types. Concepts such as "congruence" and "differentiation" are also important in his theory (Sharf, 2006). Congruence refers to "the relationship of the personality to the environment" (p.98). The more congruent the relationship between personality and the environment, the greater is the individual's chance of success in career development. The term differentiation refers to the fact that most people are likely to have more than two dominant types in interests and competences out of the six types. According to Holland's system, those who fit one personality type are readily identified as differentiated, whereas those who fit more types are regarded as being undifferentiated. The assumption is that differentiated people are able to target their preferable occupations in career choice without difficulty, whereas undifferentiated people are more likely to have difficulty in making career decisions (Holland, 1973; 1985). Furthermore, highly differentiated people are more likely to find themselves being satisfied with their career. Holland suggests that it is important for people to find congruence within the environment or workplace in order to experience work satisfaction. Holland and others have developed a comprehensive range of popular inventories for career guidance based on these concepts.

Another trait-factor approach is known as the theory of work adjustment (TWA) (Dawis and Lofquist, 1976). This theory is a model for conceptualising the interaction between individuals and work environment. The individual brings skills and abilities to perform tasks at the workplace, requiring needs and values such as compensation

for work performance. On the other hand, the work environment deals with requirements or needs that can be met by the individuals. When the interaction between individuals and work environment is mutually satisfying, correspondence occurs. Work adjustment is “the continuous process by which the individual seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his/her work environment” (p.55). Work adjustment is then indicated by two main factors: “satisfaction” and “satisfactoriness” (Dawis, 1996, p.82). Satisfaction refers to the degree to which the individual feels satisfied by his/her work, while satisfactoriness refers to the degree to which the individual’s work performance meets the expectation of the work environment. Dawis (1996) suggests that tenure, which is the length of time workers remain or are retained in the job, depends in large part on the individual’s level of satisfaction and satisfactoriness. In research this theory has been applied to the issues in relation to work adjustment problems. For instance, a recent study used the theory of work adjustment as a way to conceptualise the person-environment correspondence sometimes achieved by women with anorexia symptoms in their work environment, and suggestions were made to career counsellors (Withrow, 2006).

The above two modern trait-factor approaches in career choices are often called person-environment theories. Holland’s theory has evolved into a dynamic person-environment matching theory. It provides a comprehensive model and a range of inventories that are intuitive. Early criticisms of these inventories were based on gender bias regarding job types. These have been addressed, and do not detract from the acceptance of the theory’s principle assumptions (Sharf, 2006). Dawis and Lofquist’s theory provides a comprehensive model in which on-going work adjustments of the individual and work environment interplay to maximise their satisfaction and satisfactoriness. While Holland’s theory is used mainly for career guidance, Dawis and Lofquist’s work adjustment theory has been used for career choice as well as work adjustment issues.

Despite the fact that trait-factor theory has been the fundamental approach to career guidance and widely used in career counselling, it is not without critics. Sharf (2006) noted that “there has been little research supporting or refuting trait-factor theory itself as a viable theory of career development” (p.26). He goes on to state that previous research on trait-factor theory had simply established the validity and

reliability of its measurements. Further, he argues that trait-factor deals with only one point in one's life and does not account for changes. Osipow and Fitzgerald (1996) state that "trait and factor theory explains little about the process of personality development and its role in vocational selection" (p.104). Furthermore, Krumboltz (1994) points out that the theory does not address problems associated with the emotional and skill acquisition tasks that are required for a job search. The validity and reliability of trait-factor measurements for cross-cultural applications are also an issue in critiques. In studies on career choice, it has been argued that the Holland's model of career interests might not be applicable to people in other cultures (Tracey and Round, 1996; Tracey, Watanabe, and Schneider, 1997).

(ii) Cultural Variation of Trait-Factor

In relation to trait-factor theory, there have been a number of studies that focus on career interests and work values in diverse cultural groups (Lau and Wong, 1992; Leong, 1991; Tang, 2001). The results of these studies often suggest that career interests and work values are different according to each cultural group.

In their study of the career and life plans of college students, Leung, Ivey, and Suzuki (1994) investigated the occupational values of Asian American college students including Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean and Vietnamese, in comparison with Caucasian college students. They found that Asian American students were more attracted to occupational activities that are logical, analytical, and nonpersonal in nature (that is, technical areas) than were the Caucasian students, while they were less attracted to occupational activities that involved forceful communication and interpersonal influencing (that is, social areas). No differences were found between these two groups in their consideration of social occupations which involved a high level of interpersonal activities. Holland's RIASEC six-type structural model was used to explain that Asian American students were less likely to be attracted to occupational activities that involve selling, persuading, influencing, leading, and organising (Enterprising). They were attracted to the occupations which involved helping, teaching, advising, and caring (Social). The differences were also found in values in prestige level and gender traditionality of the occupations between the two groups.

This study suggested that Asian students chose science and technology in career choice because they place a high value on prestige (Leung, Ivey, and Suzuki, 1994). If they placed priority on prestige, they might make career choices that were not congruent with their interests, skills and other personal characteristics. However, the findings revealed that Asian American students were not only interested in technical areas but also social areas: therefore, it might not be appropriate to accept occupational stereotyping of Asian students as being interested mainly in science and technical occupations. The results of this study indicated that students' backgrounds, including their needs, talents, interests, and cultural values, should be examined in career guidance.

In a study of vocational interests across Japanese and American cultures (Tracey, Watanabe, and Schneider, 1997), three separate scale structures (Holland's RIASEC six-type circular model, Tracey and Rounds's eight-type circular model, and Tracey and Rounds's spherical representation) were examined to test the construct validity of vocational interests. This study was conducted after a previous study showed less support for the Holland's circumplex structure of RIASEC (see Figure 1) scales in American ethnic minority samples than in average American samples (Round and Tracey, 1993). Tracey and Rounds's (1996) eight-type circular has eight categories, including Service, Business Contact, Business Detail, Mechanical, Technical, Life Sciences, Artistic, and Helping (see Figure 2). In this eight-type circular model, the prestige dimension has been added to Holland's six-type. The category of "prestige" has been recognised as one of the most prominent factors for evaluating various occupations (Coxon and Jones, 1978; Reeb, 1974), although it had not been translated into most of the interest assessments—only some assessments included scales for status or prestige (Tracey, 2002). Tracey et al. (1997) therefore hypothesised that the relevance of prestige would be salient for the contexts especially in other cultures (for example, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) in which the cultural values are based in Confucian concepts (Hofstede, 1984).

In this study (Tracey et al., 1997), two samples of college students: 373 Japanese students and 401 American students completed the Inventory of Occupational Preferences (Tracey and Round, 1996) scale, which consisted of 141 occupational titles. The respondents were asked to rate their liking of each occupational title using

7-point scale. The validity of three separate scale structures (Holland's model, Tracey and Rounds's eight-type model, and Tracey and Rounds's spherical representation) were then examined at the item and scale levels based on these data.

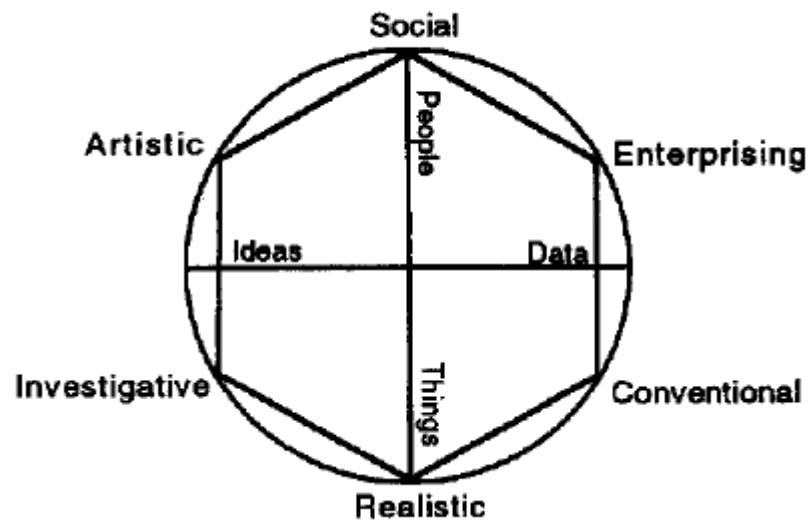


Figure 1. Holland's (1985) RIASEC six-type structural model



Figure 2. Tracey and Round's (1996) eight-type circular model

Source (Figure 1 and Figure 2): "Structural invariance of vocational interests across Japanese and American cultures," by T. J. G. Tracey, N. Watanabe, and P. Schneider, 1997, *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 44(4), p.347.

The results revealed that Holland's six-type model fitted the American sample significantly better than it fitted to the Japanese sample. In contrast, the eight-type circular model was found to fit the Japanese sample better than Holland's six-type model. The results were attributed to the fact that the interests were more finely categorised in the eight-type model than in the six-type model and that the greater specification of assessment interests promoted the achievement of a better fit across cultures. The results of the examination of the fit of the spherical model of interests across cultures, however, showed that it fitted the Japanese sample less well than it fitted the American sample. The spherical model has been more highly specified and attempted to closely account for data variation. This result was attributed to the differences in how prestige was manifest in each culture. For example, "prestige in Japan is more associated with the specific corporation that one is employed by than with the specific job title within the occupation" (Tracey et al., 1997, p.352), and therefore it is argued that the inclusion of prestige with the more typical interest circle as well as several different methods for presenting the items of prestige specific to each culture are necessary. Further research has been suggested to verify the validity of their models in relation to cross-cultural variance (Tracey, Watanabe, and Schneider, 1997).

The above two studies (Leung et al., 1994; Tracey et al., 1997) have indicated that people from Asian countries are more likely to be satisfied with a job with prestige even though they may find the environment incongruent. This is in contrast to Holland's theory in which job satisfaction is acquired when people find the environment congruent. This discrepancy, attributed to cultural values, became explicit by adding the dimension of prestige in the eight-type circular model.

In a further study, Long, Watanabe, and Tracey (2006) supported this finding by demonstrating the validity of their Personal Globe Inventory (PGI) as applied with Japanese college students. In a previous study (Tracey and Round, 1996), they created scales to represent eighteen points equally placed around the sphere and presented their model as a globe. The Personal Globe Inventory (PGI) was generated from this spherical model with the improvement of item selection and the refinement of the scales for use across diverse cultures. The PGI globe model comprises three dimensions and eighteen interest types, including three main prestige interest types:

eight basic medium prestige interest types (for example, managing, artistic, helping); five higher prestige interest types (for example, business systems, financial analysis, science); and five lower prestige interest prestige types (for example, manual work, personal service, construction/repair).

The participants in this study (Long, et al., 2006) were 2,492 undergraduate students from a Japanese university, who completed the Occupational Title scales of the translated Personal Globe Inventory. The Personal Globe Inventory consisted of two parts: 108 occupational titles and 108 activities to which participants responded with regard to their liking and competences. For example, the participants were asked to rate the extent to which they liked each occupation using a 7-point scale. The structural validity of vocational interests was examined at the item and various scale levels. The results revealed that the Personal Globe Inventory scales fitted Japanese college students well and indicated that the structure of the Personal Globe Inventory was especially salient for Japanese contexts in which cultural value was ascribed to prestige. The study recommended the utility of the Personal Globe Inventory scales in career counselling for Japanese students. The study also suggested the generalisability of interests across diverse cultures.

In this thesis, I examine Japanese native speaker teachers' experiences of career choice in addition to their teaching experiences. The above theories suggest that the experiences of my participant Japanese teachers may be similar to those of people from other Asian countries, in which people tend to put priority on prestige in career choice. This has implications for my thesis because I will explore any variations from this expected finding.

b) Theories on Career Social Learning

In order to address the limitations of Holland's theory with respect to social and developmental factors, other theorists have provided their own alternative theories. Here, two main theories are considered. One is social learning theory in career decision-making (SLTCDM) which was developed by Krumboltz (1994), and the other is social cognitive career theory (SCCT) developed by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994).

(i) Social Learning Theory in Career Decision-Making (SLTCDM)

Krumboltz (1994) developed social learning theory in career decision-making (SLTCDM) on the basis of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory. Bandura claims that human behaviour is learned observationally through modeling with continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Krumboltz also emphasises the concept of learning. He proposes that through learning experiences, people acquire their preferences for a variety of activities and beliefs about themselves, and take action with their acquired skills. His social learning theory in career decision-making also relates to trait-factor theory as it focuses on the process of career making decisions by which people find congruent occupations (Krumboltz, 1994).

In Krumboltz's theory, an individual's prior learning experience is an important factor that influences his/her career decision-making (Michell and Krumboltz, 1996). Individual learning experiences are divided into two basic types: "instrumental" and "associative" (pp.234–235). Instrumental learning experiences include genetic endowment, environmental conditions and events such as social, cultural, political and economic conditions. Examples of an instrumental learning experience include studying for an exam, writing an essay, or participating in competitions. Thus, if a student receives an excellence grade in his/her work, he/she is more likely to continue to work hard and try to get more positive outcomes than if he/she does poorly. Associative learning experiences include observation and classical conditioning. For instance, an individual can develop occupational stereotypes through various observations that may be changed through future conditioning.

Krumboltz also introduces two consequences of these learning experiences: "self-observation generalizations" and "task approach skills" (Krumboltz, 1994, p.18). Self-observation generalization is a summary belief constructed by each individual based on a number of prior learning experiences. For example, an individual's belief in his/her ability might change by observing others who may perform better than him/her. Task approach skills are acquired through cognitive processes in which people estimate the relationships between the self-observation generalizations and the outside world. Thus an individual is able to judge the most appropriate career choice for himself/herself through self-observation generalizations, his/her observations of

the world of work and his/her task approach skill. Krumboltz explains that each individual's experiences comprise positive and negative aspects which affect his/her response to occupational opportunities and job selection over the years (Krumboltz, 1996).

Krumboltz's theory is pertinent to the present study as it is expected that my participant teachers have a variety of learning experiences, having lived in at least the two countries, which may influence their career decision-making.

(ii) Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)

Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1996) claim that social cognitive career theory (SCCT) shares Krumboltz's emphasis on the learning experience. In their view, learning experience shapes an individual's occupational interests, values, and choices which are influenced by other factors such as genetic factors and environmental conditions. While Krumboltz's social learning theory in career decision-making is derived from Bandura's social learning theory, social cognitive career theory has been developed on the basis of Bandura's social cognitive theory that reflects "an increased emphasis on cognitive, self-regulatory, and motivational processes that extend beyond basic issues of learning and conditions" (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996, p.377).

Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasises the importance of the interaction of personal factors such as memories, beliefs, preferences and self-perceptions, and actual behaviour. It focuses on the individual belief system, known as self-efficacy, which enables people to succeed in a course of action. Bandura (1995) defines the concept of self-efficacy as follows:

Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. Efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate themselves, and act (p.2).

In social cognitive career theory, three cognitive-person variables—self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goals—represent key theoretical constructs (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996). Self-efficacy is acquired and modified through four types of learning experience: (1) personal performance accomplishments, (2) vicarious

learning, (3) social persuasion, and (4) physiological states and reactions (p.380). Outcome expectations are personal beliefs about the consequences of performing particular behaviours, which include extrinsic reinforcement (for example, receiving rewards), self-directed consequences (for example, pride), and outcomes (for example, absorption in the task itself). “Goals” refers to the determination to engage in a particular activity in which people set objectives to organise, guide, and sustain their own behaviour. Social cognitive career theory posits that these three central cognitive-person variables interplay and affect one another in the formation of career interests. It emphasises the importance of considering external factors that affect occupational choice behaviour. For instance, people who experience beneficial environmental conditions such as support are expected to negotiate the career choice processes more readily than those who experience obstacles. Thus, social cognitive career theory highlights the interplay among the three key social cognitive variables, learning experiences, and contextual factors such as gender, ethnicity, barriers, and support system (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1994; 1996).

Bandura’s model posits that environmental factors (that is, contextual variables such as supports and barriers) are related to actual behaviour or choice actions by way of self-efficacy and goals. Social cognitive career theory implies that contextual variables directly or indirectly relate to choice actions through goals (Lent, Brown, Schmidt, Brenner, Lyons, and Treistman, 2003).

Over the past two decades, a number of researchers have demonstrated that self-efficacy is a theoretical mechanism useful to predict academic performance (Lent, Brown, and Larkin, 1984; Pajares, and Miller, 1995; Schnuk, 1991) and to understand career-related outcomes (Hackett and Betz, 1981; Luzzo, 1993; Taylor and Betz, 1983). Many researchers have also explored the role of contextual factors in relation to career choice (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 2000; McWhirter, 1997; Tang, Fouad, and Smith, 1999). In a recent study, Lent, Brown, Talleyrand, McPartland, Davis, Chopra, Alexander, Suthakaran, and Chai (2002) examined the perceived influences on career selection and implementation of career choice by interviewing thirty-one college students. The main findings revealed that supports and barriers played an important role in students’ expected career choice. Students’ expected choices were influenced more by direct and vicarious work experiences than by other contextual

factors (that is, social and family related variables). The results also revealed that the barriers in implementing occupational goals were financial concerns, negative social/family influences, and role conflicts.

In another study, Lent, Brown, Schmidt, Brenner, Lyons, and Treistman (2003) explored the role of perceived contextual supports and barriers in relation to choice goals and actions among engineering students. Participants completed a battery of measurements that included sections on engineering self-efficacy and coping efficacy, outcome expectations, interests, major choice goals, and perceived contextual supports and barriers relative to pursuit of their major. Contextual factors were measured using a 5-point scale, indicating how likely they would be to experience the conditions in each category: supports (for example, 'get encouragement from your friends for pursuing this major') and barriers (for example, 'feel pressure from parents of other important people to change your major to some other field'). The results showed that supports and barriers were directly linked to choice goals and actions. The results also revealed that self-efficacy beliefs were significantly related to outcome expectations, which were found to be a sufficient predictor of interest.

The above two studies help support the view that career development cannot occur in a vacuum. Important contextual factors include past experiences and self-beliefs. In this thesis the contextual factors and past experiences of participant teachers may influence their career choice. The results of the above study (Lent et al., 2002) showed that supports and barriers played an important role in students' expected career choice. Supports and barriers for Japanese teachers could be significant factors in their choice of teaching positions in New Zealand. Further, Lent et al. (2002) noted that direct and vicarious work experiences influenced students' expected choices. This finding also appears to be relevant to my participants because some of the teachers experienced volunteer work in teaching in New Zealand.

c) Life Stage Approaches to Career Development

One criticism of the theories described above is that they do not account for changes in an individual and his/her environment over time. For this reason, theorists such as Super (1957) developed the life-span theory. In this theory, Super uses life stages and substages to explain the career development process spanning late adolescence to

matured adulthood. Super (1990) uses the term “maxicycle” to describe five major life stages: “growth,” “exploration,” “establishment,” “maintenance,” and “disengagement” each of which has substages. For instance, the “exploration” stage, which ranges from about fifteen to twenty-five years of age, includes three substages: “crystallizing,” “specifying,” and “implementing” (Super, 1957). During this stage, according to Super, late adolescents learn about the world of work and recognise their own skills to match the requirements of the labour market. The “establishment” stage, which ranges from about twenty-five to forty-five years of age, includes “stabilizing,” “consolidating,” and “advancing.” This stage describes the norm for people who start their working life and gradually establish their career positions. While these stages may appear rigidly attached to chronological age, this was not Super’s intention. Indeed, Super recognised that life stages do not necessarily follow according to chronological age, and that stages are apt to change depending on the individual. Most people reassess their career requirements and plans for the future as values change through life experience. Subsequently they may change their career. In Super’s theory (1990), this stage is called “recycling.”

Super’s view that career development is a life-long process and that individuals move in and out of different stages depending on their circumstances provides valuable flexibility. In this theory, for instance, women with child-rearing, and immigrants with different cultural backgrounds, may change their jobs frequently or start their career at a later chronological age than others.

Super’s idea of recycling has been examined by Smart and Peterson (1997). The sample was 226 Australian adults with a mean age of 29.87 years in a wide range of occupations. The participants were divided into five groups of which four groups were categorised according to the following phases in the uptake of a second career: (1) contemplating a change, (2) choosing a new field, (3) implementing a change, and (4) change fully completed. A group of people (fifth group) who had no intention of changing careers was also included in this study for comparison. The participants’ ‘career change progress,’ ‘career stage concerns,’ ‘job satisfaction,’ and ‘career satisfaction’ were measured by distributing self-administered questionnaires containing all measures used in this study. ‘Career change progress’ was measured by a Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers, and Jordaan’s (1986) scale, which asked the

respondents to choose the one statement that best describes their current status in the progression out of an old career into a new one. 'Career stage concerns' were measured by Super et al.'s (1988) Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI), in which respondents were asked to mark a 5-point scale to indicate the strength of their present concern with issues typifying each of Super's four developmental stages (that is, "exploration," "establishment," "maintenance," and "disengagement"). Examples included "Achieving stability in my occupation" (establishment), and "Keeping in tune with the people I work with" (maintenance). 'Job satisfaction' was measured by the Job Descriptive Index, in which response alternatives "yes," "no," or "uncertain," scored 3, 0, and 1, respectively. 'Career satisfaction' was measured in terms of career progress and career development using a Romzek's (1989) career satisfaction scale, in which responses were recorded on 5-point scales.

The results showed that when people are searching for a second career, they exhibit characteristics described in Super's first "exploration" stage. Other findings revealed that, for example, those who had no intention of changing careers and who had completed career change displayed higher satisfaction with the overall pattern of career development than those who were still actively in the change process. The sample of this study was cross-sectional and focused on employed adults; therefore the study recommended further research to examine longitudinal data, which include unemployed adults for the purpose of effective midlife career counselling.

In a further study, Smart (1998) confirmed that Super's career stage model is a useful framework for understanding women's career development. In this study, 1000 self-administered questionnaires were distributed by mail of which fifty-seven per cent of the questionnaires were returned. The sample was 414 Australian female dietitians who returned the questionnaire and who met the criteria of this study (for example, working hours). The participants' attitudes toward work across the career life cycle were examined in terms of 'career stage concerns,' 'job satisfaction,' 'job involvement,' 'career involvement,' 'professional commitment,' 'organisational commitment,' and 'willingness to relocate,' which were measured using different scales. The results showed that satisfaction with pay and job involvement were lowest in the exploration stage, whereas women in the establishment stage were significantly more satisfied with their pay and were less willing to relocate for promotion. Further,

women in the maintenance stage were more committed to their profession and more involved in their careers than women in establishment and exploration states. These findings provided “strong support for the underlying foundation of Super’s career stage theory” (p.391).

Super’s theory suggests that different values emerge at any stage in one’s lifetime and that the life stages are apt to change depending on the individual. My participants are immigrant Japanese teachers who are all career changers with previous work experiences in a range of occupations. Super’s theoretical framework will be useful to interpret the descriptions of their career development. It may be that they have passed through some career life stages prior to moving to New Zealand but that immigration may have returned them to an earlier career state.

d) Planned Happenstance

Planned happenstance theory (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999) is an expansion of social learning theory in career decision-making (SLTCDM) (Krumboltz, 1994; Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1996). While social learning theory in career decision-making emphasises individual’s prior experience and extensive planning for moving into his/her career, planned happenstance theory focuses on the nature of environments and individuals who are volatile (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999). In planned happenstance theory, the emphasis is put on the idea of serendipity or unpredictability in career development. It is suggested that individuals can create their own luck with individual qualities through taking advantage of chance events in their lives. In this theory, people who are goal-oriented, planful, curious, active in searching for opportunities, persistent, flexible, optimistic, and prepared to take risks can make good use of chance events and transform serendipity into opportunities (Ibid., 1999).

Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz (1999) take the position that planned happenstance theory is essential for successful career counselling. They argue that this theory provides clients with opportunities to prepare for career uncertainties. They suggest that in order to reach one’s career potential, one needs to plan generate and respond to chance opportunities. This will require the client to engage in (a) exploration to generate chance opportunities for increasing quality of life, and (b) skills (that is,

curiosity, persistence, flexibility, optimism, and taking risks) to help one seize opportunities (Ibid., 1999, p.118). In this theory, the concept of “career indecision” has been valued as open-mindedness in the process of career exploration. Krumboltz (1998) states that “the goal of career counseling is to facilitate the learning of skills, interest, beliefs, values, work habits and personal qualities that enable each client to create a satisfying life within a constantly changing work environment” (p.391). Thus planned happenstance theory provides a conceptual framework in which clients must develop their own skills and take actions to generate and find possible opportunities through counselling intervention that help them recognise and incorporate chance events into their career development.

In a study of the role of chance events in women’s career development, contextual factors surrounding chance events and the perceived impact of chance events on available career choices were explored through interviews (Williams, Soeprapto, Like, Touradji, Hess, and Hill, 1998). Participants were thirteen female counselling psychologists working at different universities. In data analysis, the first cluster showed two domains according to career decisions: choice of counselling psychology, and choice of academia. These two domains then generated various categories in which reasons for their present career choice were revealed. For instance, the reasons given for choosing counselling psychology were ‘fitting with interests, skills and values,’ ‘liking to help people,’ ‘being encouraged by others to enter the field,’ ‘being given a chance,’ ‘eliminating other options,’ and ‘being accepted/funded.’ On the other hand, the reasons given for choosing academia were ‘fitting with interests, skills and values,’ ‘being encouraged by advisor/faculty,’ ‘being offered job/chance,’ and ‘finding it destiny.’

The second cluster included three domains: definition of chance, the most salient chance event, and the significance of the event. Definition of chance generated three categories: ‘unplanned/unexpected occurrences,’ ‘recognising and involving as opportunities,’ and ‘altering one’s perceptions/actions and directions.’ The most salient chance event generated two categories which included ‘someone else intervened,’ and ‘totally random.’ Intervention, for instance, was described as “being advised, convinced or recruited by others to become a psychologist” which had not been planned before. ‘Totally random’ included an example that a participant “took a

vocational psychology class only because it was the only one still open.” The significance of the event generated four categories: ‘change of career path,’ ‘being provided options/opportunities,’ ‘change of self-concept’ (for example, feeling of being a professional), and ‘having new contacts’ (for example, mentors) (Williams, et al., 1998).

Participants were influenced by other contextual factors such as ‘timing of the event,’ ‘stage in career development’ (for example, considering career change), ‘internal readiness factors,’ and ‘external readiness factors.’ Internal readiness factors were related to personal characteristics (for example, being able to take risks/flexible), attitudes (for example, being motivated, self-confident), and skills (for example, feeling competent, being able to use self-knowledge). External readiness factors included support systems in which participants were encouraged by people around, personal and cultural events (for example, divorce, women’s movement in the world of work), and a few external barriers (for example, being single, having few responsibilities). The results suggested that chance events affected career choices most often by changing participants’ career paths altogether and that both internal characteristics and external factors helped women take advantage of chance opportunities (Ibid., 1998).

In a more recent study, Bright, Pryor, Wilkenfeld, and Earl (2005) conducted a survey to explore the role of contextual and unplanned factors on career decision-making of university students. The survey was divided into eight sections including demographic factors, social contacts (for example, parents, siblings, friends, teachers, celebrities), and other influences such as media, personalities and unplanned events. Participants’ responses (except unplanned events) were self-ratings on a 3-point scale. The question on the role of unplanned events was a “yes or no” question asking, “Did any of the following unplanned events have a significant influence on your career decision-making?” Eight events were assessed such as ‘a personal or work relationship,’ ‘previous work or social experiences,’ ‘barriers to your previous career,’ and ‘an injury or health problem.’ The results showed that the impact of the environment on career decision-making was significant. The results indicated that “media” including web-based information such as university information and print media, and the “immediate social context,” especially parents, friends, and teachers

were perceived to be significantly influential. The results also revealed that unplanned and serendipitous events in the context of ‘previous work or social experiences’ were very commonly perceived to influence career decision-making.

The above theory is useful for interpreting the experience of Japanese teachers in this thesis, as their immigration may involve a considerable degree of chance events.

e) Decision-Making Models in Career Development

There have been a number of decision-making models in career development research (Hansen, 1997; Miller-Tiedeman, 1987; Peterson, Sampson, and Reardon, 1991; Tiedeman and O’Hara, 1963). In his early work, Tiedeman (1961) indicated the significance of people’s career positions in the course of their lives. In his model, he focused on the sequence of the career positions and the duration of the intervals between positions in relation to career decisions. Later, Tiedeman and O’Hara (1963) generated descriptive models to illustrate the stages of career decision-making with an emphasis on the mechanisms involved. They introduced the concepts of differentiation and integration, and explained that the specific differences in perception affect the stages of decision-making through internal and external stimulation.

Recent career decision-making models have focused on the psychological processes involved. Sharf (2006) divided the decision-making models into two categories: “descriptive” and “prescriptive.”

Descriptive theories describe or explain the choices that an individual makes when deciding on career choices. In contrast, prescriptive decision-making theories focus on an ideal approach to decision making. Descriptive theories tend to be based on studies of adolescent or adult decision makings, whereas prescriptive theories originate with psychological decision-making theory or observations of cognitive decision-making processes (p.347).

Miller-Tiedeman (1987) developed a descriptive theory, in which she focuses on the individual and the individual’s life process. In her lifecareer process theory, she explained that life and career are totally related to each other in light of one’s experiences, intelligence and intuition. She emphasised the importance of finding the right life rather than making the correct career decisions and having control over

career outcomes. She suggested that individuals need to trust themselves with their experiences and intellectual ability, while being flexible and open to new career paths. Her approach also involved spiritual concepts such as guiding variables for those individuals who value these aspects. As a career counsellor, she worked with the strategies of valuing individual abilities, and encouraging and giving support in making decisions.

As an holistic approach in career decision-making, Hansen (1997) introduced the integrative life planning theory which offers a comprehensive framework of life choices and career decisions in the context of a changing society. In her model, she suggests six broad life tasks as a new career development paradigm. In Task One career professionals need to understand the changes in individual, societal, and economic situations in the world which involves technology and information processing. For instance, there has been an increase in the number of families where both partners are in employment, greater diversity in culture and ethnicity, and more advanced technology in society. This requires individuals to be aware of these changes in finding their careers. Task Two suggests integration of work and personal lives with reference to the roles of men and women. In this task, an emphasis is placed on understanding that women might experience role-sharing in employment. Task Three emphasises the importance of connecting family with work. Due to the dramatic increase of women in the labour force, career professionals need to be aware of issues such as child rearing, task sharing, and social supports. Task Four values pluralism and inclusivity. It is important to understand one's own uniqueness while valuing cultural diversity. While changes in diversity and issues of racial inclusivity are important to all workers, individuals require flexibility in career opportunities and the workplace. Task Five explores spirituality and life purpose. This requires understanding of the connection between spirituality and life purpose in relation to work and life planning. Task Six relates to managing personal transitions and organisational changes. It focuses on the importance of learning to manage the transitions and changes that are likely to become prominent in the future (Hansen, 1997).

In her approach, Hansen emphasises the need to shift from career planning to life planning in view of the dramatic changes occurring in all facets of life. She suggests

that it is important to deal with the issues of identity, including gender and cultural diversity issues, development, occupational choices, and the place of work in people's lives according to self-evaluation and reflection (Ibid., 1997). Hansen's theory is especially relevant to my participant teachers because it encompasses diversity in terms of work patterns, ethnicity, and cultures. The theory also emphasises valuing pluralism and inclusivity, both of which may be present in the New Zealand workplace of the Japanese teachers in this study.

As one of the prescriptive models, Peterson, Sampson, and Reardon (1991) developed a cognitive information-processing approach to career problem-solving and decision-making. They used the pyramid of information processing domains to illustrate this approach. The components of cognitive information processing are knowledge domains (for example, knowing oneself, knowing about occupations and world of work options), decision-making skills domains (for example, learning about how to make decisions), and executive processing domains (for example, thinking about how one's thought influences one's decision). This theoretical framework enables career-decision makers to understand how they process information about themselves and the world of work, and to improve their decision-making abilities.

Furthermore, Sharf (2006) has pointed out the importance of the role of occupational information in career decision-making. Those career theorists who take a spiritual approach emphasise especially the role of the decision-maker in evaluating the opinions of others. In cognitive information processing theory, occupational information also plays a significant role. When people make decisions through the analysis and synthesis of information, they take information obtained in the knowledge domain. Through considering what they analysed and synthesised, they create many possible solutions (p.366). Subsequently, people examine how they think, feel, and act for the purpose of making better and more appropriate career decisions.

Decision-making approaches in career development such as Miller-Tiedeman's lifecareer process theory and Hansen's integrative life planning theory focus on changes in personal life and society. They suggest that life planning is integral to career development. Since, in this thesis, participants discuss their career decisions, these theories are useful for interpretation of their interests.

f) Systems Theory

Systems theory of career development provides the overarching framework for macro-level analysis of theory and facilitates a micro-level analysis of an individual's career development (Patton and McMahon, 1999, p.10). It presents a theoretical overview which recognises the interconnections between career development theories, and allows for coexisting compatibility of the existing individual theories. For example, Holland's (1973) theory of types focuses on the interaction between personality types and the environment (see the section "Trait-Factor/Type Theory" in this chapter). Social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996) focuses on cognitive process in relation to career decision making (see the section "Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)" in this chapter). The systems theory framework of career development incorporates these individual career theories and may be able to integrate psychological and sociological theories of career (Patton and McMahon, 1999, p.167).

The systems theory framework of career development comprises key interrelated systems: the individual system, the social system, and the environmental/societal system. It represents a metatheoretical account of career that depicts "the nonlinear nature of an individual's career development process" (Patton and McMahon, 1999, p.164). It provides a framework to consider the many complex and interrelated systems that influence an individual's career development (Patton and McMahon, 1999).

The individual system comprises several intrapersonal influences, such as gender, age, (dis)ability, beliefs, personality, interests, values, skills, world of work knowledge, and ethnicity. The social system influences include peers, family, media, the workplace, and the educational institutions. Environmental/societal system influences include political decisions, historical trends, globalisation, socioeconomic status, the employment market, and geographical location. There is also consideration of process influences. These are recursive nature of interaction between the individual and the contextual systems, change over time, and chance (Patton and McMahon, 1999, pp.10–11). Patton and McMahon use the term "recursiveness" to describe the integration of a multitude of influences within and between all systems. They suggest that it is critical to examine the construct of recursiveness to explore the relational

aspects of career development, including the influence of career practice on individuals, and the recursiveness between individuals and influences from the social and environmental/societal systems (McMahon and Watson, 2007, p.51).

The systems theory framework allows one to consider individual differences according to a much larger contextual system. For example, the implications of “age” in the individual system vary with other influences such as social influences, and may change over time (Patton and McMahon, 1999, p.157). Similarly, “world of work knowledge” in the individual system differs, depending on gender, socioeconomic status, geographical location, and availability of resources (Ibid., 1999, p.158). When considering environmental/societal system influences, political and historical influences may account for the different beliefs and values held by an individual at times of high and low employment. While employment can be seen as part of the broader life context in relation to political, socioeconomic, historical, and geographical influences, employment market trends can significantly influence the demand for college or university courses. Finally, the influence of chance is considered to be an important component in the systems theory framework, although it is noted that chance occurs only as it is perceived by the individual observer (Patton and McMahon, 1999, p.166).

With the emphasis on the individual, the systems theory framework allows for multiple meanings and explanations of the purpose of work and its significance to individuals (Ibid., 1999, p.169). For example, the decision to take up a position cannot be accounted for by a causal or linear explanation because many interrelated influences operate in the individual system during the process of decision making. Individual career patterns differ from one another and reflect the changes in the nature of work, the organisation of industry, fulfillment of the individual’s needs, family influences, and the employment market (Ibid., 1999, p.177). The systems theory framework therefore becomes a useful tool for understanding the individual’s career development in relation to the complexity of system influence.

The systems theory of career development is pertinent to my thesis as it helps expand my analysis of the data through considering multiple and interactive career influences.

g) Job Search Methods and Process

On a global scale, “traditional patterns of work are changing; the old work pattern of fitting into one job for life is being replaced by the phenomenon of individuals having many occupations in a lifetime” (Hansen, 1997, p.59). Because of world-wide changes in the nature and availability of work, patterns of employment and unemployment (Ibid., 1997), there has been a considerable increase in research on job search. Many job search studies focus on job search behaviours including job source usage, job search intensity, and job search effort (Huffman and Torres, 2001; Saks, 2006). In these studies the relations between the success criteria and the job search outcomes such as employment status and turnover have been investigated.

In his career self-help book *What color is your parachute?*, Bolles (2004) introduced a variety of job search methods. For example, he suggests that the best ways to find a job include ‘asking for job-leads from personal networks,’ ‘knocking on the door of employers for enquiring job vacancies,’ and ‘be yourself, using phone book to identify subjects, and calling up the employers enquiring for job vacancies,’ whereas the worst ways to hunt for a job include ‘using the internet,’ ‘mailing out résumés to employers at random,’ and ‘answering ads in professional or trade journals.’

Job search methods can be categorised. Huffman and Torres (2001), for example, divide job search methods into three categories: informal job searching methods (for example, utilising personal networks such as co-workers and close friends); formal job searching methods (for example, answering newspaper advertisements), and direct approach methods (for example, contacting potential employers in person). Previous research has found that the use of informal sources is more effective for obtaining employment (Sillikers, 1993) with better conditions (Granovetter, 1995) than the use of formal sources. On the other hand, it has been found that the use of formal job sources is positively related to employment in high-level occupations such as management/technician level or training related positions (Allen and Keaveny, 1980).

In a recent study, Saks (2006) examined predictors and criteria of job search success. In his study, questionnaires were mailed to 627 university students/graduates and 225 usable questionnaires were retained to examine the combined and differential effects of five job search behaviours (informal sources, formal sources, preparatory search

intensity, active search intensity, and job search effort) in relation to five criteria of job search success (job interviews, job offers, employment status, person-job fit, and person-organization fit) and the effects of job search self-efficacy. The results showed that job seekers who used informal sources were less likely to find employment and that the use of informal sources was negatively related to employment status.

Therefore, there has been no conclusive evidence as to which job sources are more effective than others. It will be interesting in this thesis to explore which job seeking strategies were most effective for the native speaker teachers. In general, it is believed that the more job search methods a person uses, the more one will encounter job opportunities and find employment (Saks, 2006).

Recent research showed that job search intensity was significantly related to job search outcomes. Job search intensity indicates the frequency and amount of time in which job seekers engaged in job search activities such as ‘reading the classified ads,’ ‘preparing a résumé,’ and ‘going on a job interview’ (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001). Job search intensity involves two main phases: preparatory job search phase and active job search phase (Blau, 1993). In the preparatory phase, job seekers are engaged in gathering job search information and potential job leads, followed by the active job search phase in which job seekers activate the job search process through sending out résumés, telephoning, and going on job interviews. Saks and Ashforth (1999) found that both preparatory and active search intensity predicted employment status. They also found that active job search intensity predicted the number of applicants that resulted in job interviews (Saks and Ashforth, 2000). In more recent research, Saks (2006) found that active job search intensity was positively related to the likelihood of gaining job interviews and job offers among university graduates. Similarly, Van Hooft, Born, Taris, and Van der Flier (2004) found that job search intensity predicted job attainment. Werbel (2000) examined the linkages among constructs of career exploration, job search intensity, and job search effectiveness. The results indicated that job search intensity appeared to have the most significant impact on job search effectiveness. It was suggested that environment career exploration in which job seekers gather information about occupations, jobs and organisation was important as it had an impact on both job search intensity and income attainment (Ibid., 2000).

While job search intensity focuses on specific job search activities or behaviours, job search effort refers to the time and effort that job seekers devoted to job search activities over a specific time period (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001). Saks and Ashforth (1999) found that job search effort also predicted the likelihood of gaining job interviews. Similarly, Kanifer et al. (2001) found that job search effort was positively related to the number of job offers and employment status.

More studies have been conducted to investigate the relationships between job search behaviour and other employment outcomes. In their study, Huffman and Torres (2001) examined the effects of various types of job search methods in light of gender inequality. The main finding revealed no significant relationship between job search methods and the gender gap in earnings. In my research, I did not isolate gender as a variable because most interview participants were women (see the section “Other Background Information,” Chapter Four); the cultural variable, however, is important. Other findings showed that the effects of several formal search methods were statistically significant and that job-seekers who used the “cold-calling”¹ method eventually found higher paying jobs than those who did not use this method.

Van Hooft, Born, Taris, and Van der Flier (2004) investigated the differences between ethnic minorities (for example, Indonesian, Turkish, Moroccan) and the majority group in the Netherlands in relation to the predictors of job search behaviour. The results revealed that perceptions of social pressure predicted intentions to search for a (new) job more strongly in the ethnic minorities than in the native Dutch group. This showed a stronger influence of the social environment on job search in the ethnic minority groups. The results also revealed that job search behaviour was significantly related to job search outcomes such as job attainment.

The career development theories described above illustrate that various factors such as personality traits, social learning outcomes, the world of work, and perceived labour market demand influence the process of job search, employment outcomes, and career development. This literature on job search behaviour of ethnic minorities is

¹ “Cold calling” is the method of approaching prospective clients through telephone. In job hunting, it refers to the process of job search in which job seekers approach prospective employers after sending a cover letter to the employers.

pertinent to my thesis as my participants, immigrant Japanese teachers, used various job search methods. The influence of immigrant status on job search success was of particular interest.

The next section reviews the studies on acculturation and issues regarding immigration, in which other variables influencing job attainment such as barriers to employment and job selection biases are discussed. It also illustrates some of the social changes that occurred in Japan due to the change in the economic situation, which might have influenced the decisions of Japanese immigrant teachers to come to New Zealand.

2. Immigration and Employment

A number of researchers have investigated the settlement processes of immigrants in which employment has been a key issue (Abbott, Wong, Williams, Au, and Young, 1999; Ayman and Berry, 1996; Coate and Carr, 2005; Sakamoto, 2007; Selvarajah, 2004; Winter-Ebmer, 1994). Much of the literature focuses on the effects of immigration on ethnic minorities, including the process of acculturation,² barriers to employment, and job selection biases. In these international studies, negative outcomes such as a decrease in socio-economic status and an increase in mental disorders of immigrants were found. New Zealand is no exception. Researchers here have identified disadvantages/barriers to employment experienced by new immigrants. This section reviews the literature on the acculturation process of migrants, and on the issues regarding employment of immigrants in New Zealand.

a) Different Theoretical Studies on Acculturation

According to Berry and Sam (1997), people of different cultural backgrounds migrate to form a multicultural society for three reasons: mobility, voluntariness, and permanence. In terms of mobility, some groups move to a new location (for example, immigrants, refugees), while others have had new cultures brought to them (for example, indigenous peoples). Voluntariness is determined by whether they have entered into the acculturation process voluntarily (for example, immigrants) or they

² Acculturation has been defined by Redfield et al. (1936) as “the phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups” (p.149).

experience acculturation without having sought it out (for example, refugees, indigenous peoples). Permanence depends on whether migrants are settled either permanently (for example, permanent immigrants) or temporarily (for example, sojourners). Although the migrants' backgrounds and life circumstances differ greatly depending on those variables, Berry and Sam (1997) emphasise that "the psychological processes that operate during acculturation are essentially the same for all groups" (p.296), and adopt a "universalist" perspective on acculturation (Berry, Poortinga, Segall, and Dasen, 1992). Their works have focused on the concept of psychological acculturation—this term was first introduced by Graves (1967)—which refers to the psychological and behavioural changes that an individual experiences as a result of being in contact with other cultures and the peoples. They have introduced two fundamental strategies involved in the process of acculturation: "cultural maintenance" and "contact and participation" (Berry and Sam, 1997). "Cultural maintenance" refers to the extent to which cultural identity is important to individuals and the effort required to maintain this. It therefore indicates that high levels of cultural maintenance predict a clear ethnic and cultural identity and that low levels of cultural maintenance predict no clear identity. "Contact and participation" refers to the extent to which individuals become involved in the other cultural group, or remain primarily among themselves. These two central issues are worked out by groups and individuals in their daily encounters with each other to indicate how the individual is oriented to the two cultures in contact and intercultural experiences (Berry, 2003, p.30). Based on these two strategies, they generated a conceptual framework in which the acculturation process was categorised into four main forms: 'assimilation,' 'separation,' 'integration,' and 'marginalization.' Berry (2003) describes these forms of acculturation strategies.

...when individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and seek daily interactions with other cultures, they are using the assimilation strategy. In contrast, when individuals place a value on holding on to their original culture and at the same time wish to avoid interacting with others, they are using the separation alternative. When people have an interest in maintaining their original culture during daily interactions with other groups, they use the integration strategy. ...the marginalization strategy is used when there is little possibility of or interest in cultural maintenance and little interest in having relationships with others (p.24).

These four categories help explain the degree of adaptiveness of different individuals to a change in the cultural environment. Berry and Sam (1997) suggest that it is important to understand the acculturation process in terms of these four categories, and to recognise the possible consequences of immigration experiences for groups and individuals.

Research on the acculturation process mainly focuses on immigrants' experiences of the settlement process. For many researchers the level of adaptation and adjustment of migrants is related to psychological changes (Pruitt, 1978; Armes and Ward, 1989; Sayegh and Lasry, 1993; Ward and Kennedy, 1994; Berry, Phinney, Sam, and Vedder, 2006). Berry and Sam (1997) propose that the studies on acculturation can be categorised into three domains according to the level of psychological difficulty experienced by individuals in the acculturation process.

The first category relates to the migrants who accomplish psychological adaptation without difficulty. The studies in this category mainly focus on "behavioural shifts" (Berry, 1992) and "culture learning" (Bochner, 1986; Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001). The behavioural shifts refer to psychological changes in values, attitudes, abilities and motives that occur during acculturation. Two distinguishable phenomena are involved in the behavioural shifts: "learning" behaviours from the new culture; and "shedding" features of one's original culture (Berry, 1992, pp.73–74). During these shifts, the degree of participation in acculturation and one's contact-related problems are likely to be affected by a variety of factors (for example, personal motivation for migrating, acculturation styles, Berry, 1992). Culture learning is the process by which migrants acquire social knowledge and skills that are culturally relevant for surviving in their new society. In a cultural learning approach, cultural-specific variables (for example, general knowledge about new culture, length of residence in the host culture) are used to assess the amount of difficulty experienced by migrants in social interactions (Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001).

A number of studies in the first category were conducted on the experience of overseas students in social situations (Barker, Child, Gallois, Jones, and Callan, 1991; Furnham and Bochner, 1982) and academic situations (Burns, 1991; James and Watts, 1992; Samuelowicz, 1987). One of the studies was conducted among foreign students

in London to examine the degree of difficulty experienced by the students in everyday social situations (Furnham and Bochner, 1982). In this study, a 40-item instrument was used. The instrument included statements which showed a variety of social situations such as 'making friends,' 'going shopping,' and 'seeing a doctor.' The results revealed that the greater the disparity between the host society and the foreign students' culture, the greater the degree of difficulty experienced in negotiating everyday social situations. The results also revealed that the most difficult social situations encountered by foreign students were associated with establishing and maintaining relationships with host nationals.

A second category or level of difficulty is concerned with migrants' cultural conflicts such as "culture shock" (Oberg, 1960) and "acculturative stress" (Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok, 1987). Culture shock was first defined by Oberg (1960) as "precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (p.177). According to the list created by Oberg, the symptoms of culture shock included 'excessive concern over water and food safety,' 'fear of physical contact with natives,' 'a feeling of helplessness and dependence on long-term residents of one's own nationality,' and 'anger over delays and otherwise minor frustrations.' Oberg also analysed the stages of culture shock, and listed four stages of shock which were called "honeymoon stage," "crisis," "recovery," and "adjustment." The length of time that people go through each stage may vary. Lysgaard (1955) proposed that adjustment follows a U-curve when he studied migrant scholars in the U.S.A. He used the shape of the U to explain the process of adjustment and adaptation of migrants. In his U-curve hypothesis, satisfaction and wellbeing of migrants gradually decline, but then increase again when students became more familiar with the host society, depicting a U-shape.

Another form of cultural conflict called acculturative stress involves "a set of stress behaviours which occurs during acculturation, such as lowered mental health status, feelings of marginality and alienation, heightened psychosomatic symptom level, and identity confusion" (Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok, 1987, p.492). Through acculturative stress, individuals experience physical, psychological and social changes that may affect mental health.

One study in this category was conducted among English-speaking sojourners in Singapore. Armes and Ward (1989) explored sojourners' knowledge about Singapore, attitudes toward Singapore, and personality traits in relation to psychological, social, and health-related adjustments. The results revealed that local knowledge was significantly related to the length of time in the country and that extraversion tended to be linked to depression, which was contrary to the prediction in the culture-shock literature. It was also found that women reported more feelings of helplessness than men. The results indicated that knowledge alone was not likely to ensure psychological adjustment and that individual differences in extraversion might interact with the culture-specific characteristics of the host country producing inconsistency in the findings.

More studies have been conducted to explore the experience of overseas students in academic situations (Gun-Lewis and Malthus, 2000; Li, Barker, and Marshall, 2002; Mills, 1997). These studies have mainly focused on learning problems of students who were sojourners, and their experiences were explored in relation to cultural adaptation. One of the studies explored some international students' experiences at a New Zealand university (Mills, 1997). The participants were five Thai, twenty-one Singaporean and eighty-five Malaysian students, and qualitative data were gathered through group discussions, individual semi-structured interviews, forced response surveys, and a series of fifteen classroom observations. The main findings revealed differences in student–teacher interaction, language problems, perception of the local students, lack of common experience, and acculturation processes that the students had gone through.

The differences in student–teacher interaction found in this study (Ibid., 1997) were attributed to Asian culture as characterised by hierarchical relationships, and these differences were reflected in classroom interaction. For instance, students were very respectful to the teacher and passive in various learning situations. The language problem was discussed in relation to the cultural values of students. Not only did the Asian students find it difficult to understand what the teacher was saying in class because of the speed and a strong accent but also they found it difficult to express themselves, for example, in group discussions. Because Asian students were not strongly encouraged to ask questions in their culture, they would not ask questions

even in their own cultural setting. It was therefore very difficult for them to participate in a discussion conducted in a language other than their first language. The lack of common experience was also problematic. Students could not always understand the examples given by teachers to explain a topic common to local students, which resulted in a sense of exclusion among Asian students and a dependence upon compatriot or international student groups. The data in this study revealed that students encountered culturally different styles of learning and teaching. As a result of experiencing varying degrees of such dislocation, some students in this study displayed several forms of stress, including sleep disruption, anxiety and depression. A recommendation that came from the students' experiences was that their experiences become valuable resources for planning to meet internationalisation needs at educational institutions.

A more recent qualitative study was conducted to investigate mismatched expectations between teachers and students in New Zealand (Li, Barker, and Marshall, 2002). Twenty-three Asian university students from China, India, Fiji, Sri Lanka, and Burma participated in the survey, of whom twelve students were interviewed in three groups. The interview participants had been in New Zealand for almost six months, studying Business Communication. The main findings revealed disparities in expectations between overseas students and New Zealand teachers. These were attributed to students' inadequate language proficiency and the differing concepts of learning that existed between students and teachers. The findings indicated that the language differences of students, and students having different concepts of learning from their teachers, contributed to difficulties in the process of learning and cultural adaptation. Some participants also attributed their difficulties to their lack of New Zealand experience such as understanding of New Zealand culture (for example, history, the legal system) and work experience. The data in this study showed that the students needed cultural adaptation, and that this would involve making appropriate changes to fit in with the learning environment in New Zealand. An outcome of this study was the recommendation that it is important for teachers to identify the disparities in terms of cultural values, beliefs and expectations of learning and teaching in order to develop awareness of cultural issues and intercultural communication skills. Furthermore, teachers need to ensure that their approaches are meaningful to the students by "constantly examining their pedagogies" (p.152). It is

therefore recommended that “teachers and students jointly create a synergetic culture” (p.153) in which they respect different views and share common agendas.

The two studies introduced above are especially relevant to my research. Although these studies focused on overseas students, the students were from Asian countries and thus their cultural values were similar to those of my participant Japanese native speaker teachers. Similarities may be observed also in terms of cultural adaptation and in the acculturation process. The findings in these studies are useful as they guided me to explore the experience of my participant teachers who may have encountered difficulties similar to the problems of overseas students from Asian countries.

The third category refers to the difficulties in adaptation experienced by immigrants who develop serious psychological disturbances such as clinical depression and incapacitating anxiety as a result of high acculturative stress. In a study conducted in New Zealand among Chinese migrants mainly from Hong Kong and Taiwan, Abbott, Wong, Williams, Au, and Young (1999) found that the psychiatric morbidity rate for 271 migrants aged between fifteen and fifty-five years was nineteen per cent. Major predictors of poor adjustment included unemployment, low English ability, lack of university education, and regrets about coming to New Zealand. Predictors of minor mental disorder included regretting coming, and being young and female. Mothers with absent husbands and young people with absent parents had an elevated rate of mental disorder.

While the categorisation of research for Berry and Sam (1997) is based on psychological adjustment, other researchers made a distinction between psychological adjustment and sociocultural adjustment (Searle and Ward, 1990; Ward and Kennedy, 1992; 1993; 1994). Where psychological adjustment is related to personality, life changes, and social support variables, and is “best understood within a clinically oriented framework of a stress and coping model with depression” (Searle and Ward, 1990, p.460), sociocultural adjustment is influenced by general cultural knowledge, length of residence in the host culture, and amount of contact with host nationals, and is more associated with social-learning cognition framework (Ward and Kennedy, 1993).

In a study conducted among sojourners (employees of a New Zealand organisation whose spouses live overseas in such countries as Australia, Canada, China, Japan, Malaysia and South Korea), Ward and Kennedy (1994) examined host national and co-national identification in relation to sociocultural and psychological adaptation during cross-cultural transitions. The results revealed that sojourners with strong host national identification had experienced fewer sociocultural adjustment difficulties, while those with strong co-national identification showed fewer psychological adjustment problems. It was also revealed that for sociocultural adaptation, sojourners in a position of 'separation' had experienced the greatest social difficulty, whereas those in a position of either 'assimilation' or 'integration' displayed the least social difficulty. For psychological adjustment, it was found that 'integrated' sojourners had experienced less depression than 'assimilated' ones.

A more recent study employed a qualitative research method to analyse interviews of six Russian-speaking immigrants in New Zealand to explore personal problems experienced through immigration and their settlement process (Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward, 2007). Interview topics included the reasons for immigration; gains and losses associated with migration; family situations; the nature of any psychological problem; coping strategies for problems; changes in lifestyle; perceived success in adaptation; identity issues; and plans for the future. All the participants indicated that they came to New Zealand for the sake of other family members. Three sub-categories under the concept of gains were identified in comparison to their country of origin: family reunion, personal safety and security, and human freedom in political and legal system. Under the concept of losses, two sub-categories were identified: loss of self-fulfillment (for example, loss of feelings of competence, social status, full-time employment), and loss of the sense of belonging (for example, loss of contact with friends and social networks). Problems identified in adaptation to life in New Zealand were related to practical, sociocultural, and psychological issues. Practical problems included starting a new life from scratch, experiencing a language barrier, and financial hardship. Inability to confirm their qualifications and get an adequate job were exacerbated by poor language skills, which resulted in unemployment or engagement in a low-skilled job that left them in the low-income strata of the society.

Sociocultural problems were found to be interconnected with these practical problems. For example, a language barrier caused isolation from New Zealand society and lack of understanding of cultural traditions and social norms; and restricted contact with the host population. Psychological problems were related to mental health issues such that severe cultural and social isolation caused feelings of grief and mourning, helplessness, anxiety, depression and pessimistic thoughts. The participants indicated three main coping strategies to solve their problems: social support (for example, family support), cognitive strategies (for example, positive thinking, self-persuasion, reframing in the form of priority-setting), and behavioural strategies (for example, avoidance, distraction in the form of keeping themselves busy) (Maydell-Stevens, et al., 2007, p.190).

The issues on identity and perceived success in adaptation were collapsed under one major category, level of adaptation, which was categorised into four forms of adaptation. All the participants indicated that they had experienced high levels of psychological distress at an early stage of their resettlement (that is, the initial stage of shock). They gradually increased their knowledge of New Zealand culture with feelings of belongingness to New Zealand society (that is, proportional identity). Half of the participants stated that they were adapting successfully in the form of gaining employment and going through re-qualifying (successful adaptation), whereas the others showed feelings of isolation, inadequacy, incompetence, dissatisfaction with life and perceived discrimination (maladaptive adjustment). Lifestyles were also significantly related to the level of adaptation. The more different the participants found the lifestyle in New Zealand from in Russia, the more difficult it was for them to accept the New Zealand lifestyle. In plans for the future, the participants indicated their desire to achieve success and a meaningful life in the form of acquisition of certain skills and assets; mastering the language; getting a good job; re-qualifying and achieving financial independence, finding an adequate place in society, and feeling useful and functional. The results showed that the adaptation pattern of the participants in this study were either integration or separation. Those who chose the integration strategy of acculturation were more satisfied with their adaptation than those who chose the strategy of separation. It was suggested that this qualitative research could act as a valuable starting point for future exploration, as this was a first investigation of this kind. The study concluded with a social policy implication that it

is important to facilitate immigrants' social inclusion into New Zealand in the areas of employment, education and mental health.

The above study is particularly relevant to my thesis because of the methodology employed and the relevance of findings. I use qualitative methods to survey and interview a number of people who experienced acculturation. While the focus for Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward (2007) was on problems of acculturation for Russian migrants, my focus is on the teaching experiences of Japanese migrants.

Other research on acculturation has focused more on the interaction between immigrants and their host society in the process of their psychological adaptation and adjustment. Sayegh and Lasry (1993) noted that the acculturation process needs to be examined in the interaction between immigrants and their host society because "acculturation occurs within the two groups; immigrant and host, with changes in each interacting together to influence the direction and outcome of that change" (p.107). A structural model called the Interactive Acculturation Model (IAM) also seeks to explain the variability in acculturation for immigrants. In this model, the relational outcomes are determined according to the acculturation orientations adopted by immigrant groups and the host society (Bourhis, Moïse, Perreault, and Senécal, 1997). For instance, if orientations fit positively between immigrants and their host society, the integration orientation is preferred because the values and directions are met between these two groups.

In part of their recent study on immigrants' employment experiences in New Zealand, Mace, Atkins, Fletcher, and Carr (2005) investigated immigrants' acculturation style; and acculturation 'fit' between immigrants' acculturation style and their employers' preferred style of acculturation for immigrants to adapt. The results showed that the sampled recruitment agencies had estimated that employers would prefer immigrants to be 'integrationist' in their acculturation style. The second estimated preference among potential employers was found to be 'assimilation.' It was indicated that both 'integration' and 'assimilation' required immigrants to adapt themselves to the norms and customs predominating in New Zealand (see the next section for more findings of this research).

These research findings on acculturation provide me with models to use when analysing the responses of participants in my thesis. My participants, who emigrated from Japan to New Zealand, were faced with the need to get teaching positions. The literature suggests that the degree to which they adapted to this new country would have implications for the ease with which they acquired and settled into a teaching position. If they adapted and adjusted positively through finding a job and feeling accepted by the society, they would presumably have a good experience. On the other hand, my participants might find difficulties in living in New Zealand if their acculturation orientation was either 'separation' or 'marginalization.'

b) Barriers to Employment in New Zealand

The recent waves of emigration from and immigration into New Zealand have involved people from Pacific Island nations since the 1960s (Liu, McCreanor, McIntosh, and Teaiwa, 2005) followed by people from Asian countries since the 1990s (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2004). At present, New Zealand also receives skilled people from the Republic of South Africa (Coates and Carr, 2005). For immigration in New Zealand, a points system (that is, the skills category) has been adopted since 1991 to choose immigrants based on qualifications, years of on-job experiences and professional qualifications (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002). Immigrants to New Zealand therefore expect the New Zealand government to utilise their qualifications and skills when they settle. However, research revealed that the government had not yet fully achieved utilisation of skilled immigrants. As a result, immigrants have faced unexpected outcomes such as downgrading of occupational status (Oliver, 2000), income differentials between immigrant workers and New Zealand born employees (Winkelmann, 2000), and high morbidity (Abbott, Wong, Williams, Au, and Young, 1999).

Many researchers have investigated the reasons for the lack of capitalisation of talents and skills of immigrants in New Zealand (Tirlin, Henderson, and North, 1999; Oliver, 2000; Chan, 2001; Coates and Carr, 2005; Ward and Masgoret, 2007). For instance, the Centre for Applied Cross-Cultural Research (CACR) at Victoria University investigated the observation that Chinese immigrants are disadvantaged compared to native New Zealand Europeans seeking to enter the labour force in New Zealand (Ward and Masgoret, 2007). Their research was a small field-based experiment that

examined the responses of recruitment agencies to unsolicited résumés from native-born and immigrant candidates in the technology sector. Four versions of a résumé were prepared for the purpose of this research. Two versions of résumés were prepared for a China-born immigrant, of which each described either his technical skills or sales skills. The other two versions of résumés were for a native-born New Zealand candidate describing his skills in each area. While personal names used in the résumés were fictitious, the names of educational institutions and universities were real. The university qualifications and work experiences of the candidates described in the résumés were equivalent. In total, eighty-five sets of covering letter with one of the versions of résumé—forty-three résumés of a native born candidate and forty-two résumés of a China-born candidate—were sent to technology-sector recruitment agencies in New Zealand. They were sent by e-mail and the agencies were asked to respond by e-mail. The results revealed that in total fifty-one responses—twenty-nine for a native-born New Zealand candidate and twenty-two for a China-born candidate—out of eighty-five were received to the initial inquiry. Subsequently, the New Zealand candidates (twenty-eight per cent) were actively recruited with direct requests for contact and the provision of additional information more frequently than the Chinese candidates (nine per cent). On the other hand, the Chinese candidates (twenty-eight per cent) were disengaged more frequently than the New Zealand candidates (three per cent), being told that there were no job opportunities. English language proficiency was excluded as one of the factors influencing the results, as written communications from the native-born and immigrant candidates were identical. The disadvantages of immigrants were therefore attributed to their overseas education and lack of New Zealand experience.

The New Zealand Immigration Service (2004) has been conducting a longitudinal Immigration Survey: New Zealand (LisNZ) to investigate migrants' initial settlement experiences and the outcome of immigration policies. For the purpose of development and preparation for the main survey (which started in 2004 and is scheduled to be completed in 2007), the LizNZ pilot survey was conducted between 2001 and 2002. The first progress report on this pilot survey was released in March, 2004. The pilot survey population included migrants who were approved for residence in New Zealand and who were aged sixteen years and over at the time of approval. The population included those who speak English, Tongan, Samoan, Mandarin and

Cantonese, which were the languages used in the survey. The survey issues covered motives and processes of migration; the skills and resources migrants bring; economic contribution to New Zealand; and social integration and settlement. The results revealed that the key motivating factors included lifestyle, joining family members, the climate or physical environment, educational opportunities, safety from crime, and employment opportunities in New Zealand. Regarding the skills and resources of migrants, working for pay or profit was found to be the most common activity for migrants before coming to New Zealand. Those who had worked during the two years prior to their residence approval were most likely to have been previously employed as professionals. In relation to employment, the key factors associated with higher employment rates in New Zealand were having business skills, English language ability, previous work experience, post-school qualifications, being younger, and being from ESANA (Europe, South Africa, and North America) rather than from North Asia. For those who have experienced working in New Zealand, making direct contact with an employer and getting work through friends and relatives were found to be the most common methods of finding their first job in New Zealand. The findings also showed that around one in five migrants reported having experienced discrimination while in New Zealand. The report indicated that migrants from Asian countries (excluding North Asia) were more likely to have experienced discrimination than migrants from ESANA and the Pacific. In addition, it was found that migrants were more likely to report having experienced discrimination when applying for jobs, working in their job or while shopping, than in other situations.

The New Zealand Immigration Service (2003) also announced the results of a survey based on skilled migrants' labour market experiences and the 2001 Census data. This report included the survey findings of employers who were themselves migrants to New Zealand. The findings showed that a higher proportion of migrants with a job offer came from ESANA regions, that fewer came from Asia, and that professionals were more likely to come from ESANA, while sales and service workers were more likely to come from Asia. The results of the 2001 Census revealed that the immigrants from Asia and the Pacific obtained lower labour force participation than immigrants from ESANA and the New Zealand born population. It was indicated that their lower labour force participation was overall related to their lack of English ability and New Zealand work experience, as well as no or school-only qualifications.

In recent research on immigrants' employment experiences in New Zealand, Mace, Atkins, Fletcher, and Carr (2005) explored the factors influencing the process of finding full employment. Based on the model for the psychology of immigrant integration which is made of three components of the process: affect (that is, feelings about occupational satisfaction), behaviour, and cognition (Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001), an integrative model of immigrant job hunting was designed and adapted in this research. The factors explored included job-hunting behaviour, cognitive flexibility, acculturation style, and 'fit' of acculturation style between employer and immigrant. Participants were twenty experts from employment and recruitment agencies, and seventy migrants and refugees who had been or were actively seeking fulltime employment. Half of the migrant sample originated from Asian countries, the rest of the sample being diverse in their continents-of-origin. Methods included telephone surveys which had been conducted among recruitment organisations. In the survey, for example, participants were asked to rank order the acculturation styles (that is, integration vs. assimilation to separation vs. marginalization) that they believe prospective employers would prefer in an immigrant job applicant. Migrant participants were also asked in the questionnaire to estimate what they saw as New Zealand employers' perceived preference for immigrants' acculturation style at workplace. Other factors were also investigated through different inventory measures. The results revealed that pre-interview job-seeking behaviours, and adaptation to and identification with perceived New Zealand norms were positively predictive of finding full employment. On the other hand, behaviours at interview and degree of fit between job hunter and potential employer were not statistically predictive of finding full employment. Research findings indicated that adaptability was an important factor in finding a job.

Furthermore, various factors that influenced the processes of selection bias have been investigated. In a theory-based field study, Coates and Carr (2005) explored the possibility of selection biases operating against particular countries-of-origin. They surveyed eighty participants, who were subject matter experts in job selection, from the Human Resources Institute of New Zealand (HRINZ), New Zealand's Industrial/Organisational Network of psychology consultants (IONet), and a range of recruitment and selection agencies. A questionnaire was used for the respondents to rank order candidates on job selection scenarios in which the respondents used their

experience to estimate how selection panels would have rank-ordered candidates from different countries-of-origin. In the job selection scenarios, the candidates were presented with similar backgrounds in education and training experience, language proficiency, and would cost an employer/organisation about the same to employ and to relocate. The countries-of-origin included India, Britain, China, South Africa, Australia, Pacific Island, and New Zealand. There were twelve professions used in the questionnaire, including information technology manager, aircraft engineer, secondary school teacher, chef, construction site supervisor, and medical doctor. The respondents were asked to try and estimate the most likely preference pattern of the hiring persons who would be screening such applicants.

In this study (Coates and Carr, 2005), the theoretical frameworks were the three major psychological theories that might be relevant to selection biases against skilled immigrants seeking employment. They are Similarity-Attraction Theory (SAT), Social Dominance Theory (SDT), and Social Identity Theory (SIT). Similarity-Attraction Theory postulates that people tend to be attracted to others who show more similarities to themselves (Byrne, 1971), and that the greater degree of similarity between two parties, the greater the attraction will be (Chanthika, 1999). In this theory, it can be predicted that immigrants are perceived as dissimilar to the majority of the society. Social Dominance Theory is a social psychological theory of group conflict. "It examines how psychological orientation and individuals act and are acted on by a group-based hierarchy. It situates the processes in the context of motivational differences between individual and the broader social context within which individuals find themselves" (Sidanius and Pratto, 1999, p.56). Therefore, in the context of diversity, people with higher perceived dominance may enjoy selection advantages. SIT was developed to understand the psychological basis of intergroup discrimination. Social Identity Theory predicts that similarity is more attractive than dissimilarity; yet inter-group relations become fractious when their degree of similarity is high (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Tajfel, 1982).

The results confirmed the existence of job selection bias. For instance, the candidates from Australia and Britain (people who seem more similar) were, as expected, ranked higher in job selections than candidates originating from South Africa, followed by candidates from India, China, and the Pacific Islands. The results also showed

significant preferences for New Zealand candidates over candidates from overseas such as Britain or Australia. For example, the mean ranking for ‘secondary teacher’ was top for applicants from New Zealand, followed by applicants from Australia, and then applicants from Britain. The findings revealed in this study contributed to understanding selection dynamics. Specifically this study introduced the term “brain waste,” which refers to the problem for immigrants whose skills may be perceived as lower in quality or insufficiently relevant to the conditions of the country into which they immigrated. Immigrants may be working below the skill level for which they were selected because their employers do not recognise their credentials as equivalent (Reitz, 2004). The study indicated that the continuing cooperation of the community of Industrial and Organisational, and Human Resources practitioners was required to make a difference in the selection bias in the workforce.

Samples in most of the research on the immigrants’ employment experiences in New Zealand do not include Japanese people (except that the LizNZ pilot survey includes Japanese people as two per cent of the survey participants); however, the implications are that my participants may have experienced similar incidents in job hunting to those of skilled people from other nations in previous studies (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2004; Mace, Atkins, Fletcher, and Carr, 2005; Coates and Carr, 2005; Ward and Masgoret, 2007). In this thesis, I examine pre-interview job-seeking behaviours, adaptation to New Zealand norms, and experiences of gaining employment for a group of Japanese native speaker teachers. The literature on barriers to employment provides a useful context for interpreting their experiences. The importance of this literature is that it provides a context in which to view the experiences of my participants. While I have not asked them directly about their “adaptivity,” I find the literature helpful to guide my understanding.

c) Social Background of Japanese Immigrant Teachers in New Zealand

According to the statistics (Ministry of Education, 2006), the number of secondary school students taking Japanese as a subject started to increase in the late 1980s (see Figure 2 and Table 8, Chapter Five). The enrolled student numbers continued to increase until it peaked in 1995. During three consecutive years between 1994 and 1996 the statistics showed the highest number of students taking Japanese in New Zealand. Compared to the year 2005, for example, when 7.09 per cent of the national

population enrolled in secondary school was studying Japanese, the percentages of the students studying Japanese were 11.84 per cent in 1994, 12.01 per cent in 1995, and 11.35 per cent in 1996 respectively.

With reference to the statistics showing that the enrolled student numbers studying Japanese increased from the late 1980s in New Zealand, I hypothesised that the number of Japanese teachers had also increased during that time and that some of my participants would be teachers who had arrived in New Zealand in the late 1980s drawn by “pull factors.” Furthermore, I hypothesised that if many of my participants had arrived during the late 1980s and onwards, it would be relevant to explore their particular reasons for coming to New Zealand in relation to their backgrounds. In addition to teachers’ personal, social, and occupational backgrounds, Japan’s economic background was considered to be an important factor that might have influenced the decision of teachers who came to New Zealand drawn by “push factors.” This section describes some of the social changes that Japan faced during the late 1980s to the early 1990s due to the changes in the economic situation called “Japan’s economic bubble.”

Japan experienced a period of sustained growth called the Heisei³ Boom that started in November 1986 (Tanaka, 1990). Growth continued until the bursting of Japan’s economic bubble that built up in the late 1980s. During that time when real estate and stock prices skyrocketed, people put up their assets as collateral for money to invest in luxuries and conspicuous consumption (Ibid., 1990). Many jobs were created due to the bubble economy, and young people were able to find jobs without difficulty. Kuwahara (2005) recalled an episode that explained the popularity of university graduates as labour force recruits.

At the height of the bubble boom around 1990, university graduates were in high demand everywhere. In April when students had just moved up to the fourth, final year, they were promised jobs after graduation by a number of firms. There were some episodes where students were given an opportunity of a trip to Hawaii because they had promised to join the companies (p.30).

³ “Heisei” is the current name of era in Japan. The Heisei era started on January 8, 1989, following the Showa era/period (1926–1989).

Because of the popularity and high demand for young people working in all industries, young people became particular about choosing their jobs. Young workers, especially, were no longer seeking jobs in the manufacturing and construction industries in which “3k” jobs—*kitusi* (demanding), *kitanai* (dirty) and *kiken* (dangerous)—were especially suffering from the labour shortage. Because workers avoided such low-paid and unpopular jobs with poor labour conditions, the Japanese government amended the immigration law in 1990 to allow more people from overseas to work in Japan. Consequently, those industries started employing foreign workers from overseas such as from Latin America and other Asian countries (Kuwahara, 2005).

This situation changed after the bursting of Japan’s economic bubble. Furnham (2005) points out that the main problem for Japanese organisations in the early 1990s, when Japan was facing recession, was how to manage the lifetime employment system. In this traditional employment system, Japanese workers were virtually guaranteed a working position for life. Kato (2001) conducted field research in 1999 to investigate the details of employment practices at three large manufacturing firms in Japan. He used the qualitative data provided by these companies for his analysis, and focused on the issue of lifetime employment. His findings revealed little evidence for any decline in the job retention rates of the employees in those companies between the late 1980s and the post-bubble period. He found that the three companies had heavily relied on transfers of their permanent employees to their subsidiaries and related firms for meeting restructuring and downsizing targets, while conducting drastic cuts in recruiting new graduates. Young workers and middle aged workers with shorter tenure were also found to be affected by downsizing.

This reduction in the hiring of new graduates was more serious for young people in Japan: statistics showed a rapid increase in the unemployment rate of those aged between fifteen and twenty-four in the 1990s (Kato, 2005). It also contributed to the increase of *freeters*⁴ in Japan. The word “freeter” was first used in Japan around 1987 when Japan was still in the bubble economy. *Freeters* originally referred to young people who did not choose to work despite the many job opportunities available to

⁴ The word “freeter” is thought to be an amalgamation of the English word “free” (or “freelance”) and the German word “*arbeiter*” (“worker”). “*Freeters*” are young office workers not committed to any particular career path and continually move between low-wage jobs.

them. Because of the prolonged recession that Japan experienced from the early 1990s to the mid-2000s, the meaning of ‘freeter’ has slightly changed. Freeters no longer have abundant labour opportunities and, in fact, its meaning stresses the fact that they are low income earners due to the lack of job opportunities. Honda (2005) argues, however, that it is too simplistic to claim that freeters are the victims of the economic recession. She explains that Japanese people no longer have such close links among families, schools and companies. During the period when Japan experienced rapid economic growth, after the mid-1950s, families provided financial and motivational support for their children; schools were aware of companies’ labour demands; and there was a strong demand by companies for a young labour force upon the completion of children’s schooling. According to Honda, “freeters are the people who fell into the widening chasm between these systems, losing their former support and facing uncertainty common to post-industrial societies” (p.6).

My participants experienced opportunities, limitations and job experiences that were influenced by Japan’s economic bubble and subsequent downturn. Some had experienced abundant labour opportunities while others lacked job opportunities because of the economic recession. Furthermore, their experiences were influenced by the Japanese culture in which they lived. In the following section, I introduce the characteristics of Japanese society and Japanese culture that help make sense of the experiences of Japanese immigrant teachers working in the New Zealand context.

3. Japanese Cultural Values

There have been a number of studies that focus on traditional Japanese values in clinical, psychological, and educational fields (Ching, McDermott, Fukunaga, Yanagida, Mann, and Waldron, 1995; Kitano, 1976; Kitano and Maki, 1996; Marsella, 1993; Nippoda, 2003), and also in the field of international business and management (Chanthika, 1999; England, 1986; Soutar, Grainger, and Hedges, 1999). This section first reviews the literature on Japanese culture and society, providing details on Japanese values. It also reviews some of the cross-cultural studies conducted across various disciplines. The relevance of this section is two-fold. First, it helps provide a context for the background experiences of the participants in the present research, and second, it provides some information relevant to the position of the researcher.

a) Japanese Culture and Society

Marsella (1993), who works in cross-cultural counselling, emphasises the importance of knowing Japanese fundamental values which help understand his clients of Japanese origin living overseas. He introduces Japanese cultural aspects that have been traditionally valued by Japanese people. They are hierarchical status; collective identity; tradition and the past; duty, obligation, and responsibility; endurance; quality and process; harmony; cooperation and competition; and mind-body relationships. Although this categorisation may be referred to as stereotyping,⁵ which is “once regarded as a biased and inappropriate way of grouping people” (Soutar, Grainger, and Hedges, 1999, p.205), there is also the point of view that stereotypes help provide people with an orientation towards the unknown (Becker, 1962; Barna, 1989). Thus, although this categorisation was made for the therapeutic purpose of helping migrants who maintain traditional Japanese ethnic identification, it may nevertheless provide some understanding of Japanese people. In light of these considerations, this section describes some of the traditional Japanese cultural values that have been emphasised in the literature.

(i) Hierarchy

Japanese society maintains its traditions where people hold a strong hierarchical status orientation that respects and defers to authority (Marsella, 1993). This hierarchical society influences the ways that people behave and interact with others in familial, educational, and social situations. Since Japanese people tend to define their selves in relation to others, the sense of self will change depending on the social context in which they find themselves (Smith, Parry, and Moeran, 1991).

Nakane (1972) examined the factors underlying the formation of social groups comprising a set of individuals, and introduced the concepts of “attribute” and “frame.” The term “attribute” refers to any specific quality of an individual in his/her society such as descent, academic background, social status, and occupation. The term “frame” refers to groups that are formed by a set of individuals sharing a common situational position by belonging to a specific organisation. She argues that Japanese

⁵ Furnham (2005) states that “biased perception arises when people rely on the stereotyped image and ignore critical information concerning the individual” (p.264), although he agrees that effective stereotyping can help people understand and act appropriately in a new situation (p.720).

society emphasises the “frame” such as company or school, in which a Japanese person seeks to identify himself/herself to others with reference to his/her position.⁶ As a result, social groups have been formed on the basis of a common situational position by establishing a frame which includes members with different attributes.

Furthermore, Nakane (1972) analysed human relations with respect to the social frame and individual attributes. She coined the terms, “vertical,” and “horizontal,” and explained how the relationships of the people are formed on the basis of individual specific attributes. For example, the parent–child, teacher–student, employer–employee relations are vertical, whereas the sibling, colleague, classmate relations are horizontal. When a group is formed on the basis of a specific attribute common to the individuals in it, the horizontal relation forms an homogeneous group. On the other hand, a vertical relation is formed, for instance, when some have more important functions than others within an organisation. According to Nakane, both relations are important primary factors in relationships in the structure of Japanese society. From her point of view, Japanese people are therefore positioned in relation to others, and are expected more rigorously to behave according to their attributes and the social context than their counterparts in Western societies.

(ii) Collectivism

Japanese culture is often described as collectivism that stresses interdependence in which people put priority on group goals rather than individual goals. Hofstede (2001) defines that “collectivism stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (p.225). He argues that the vast majority of people in the world live in collectivist societies where people are more interested in pursuing the interest of the group rather than individuals. He refers to the extended family to explain that people in the collectivist society learn to think of themselves as part of a ‘we’ group which is the major source of one’s identity. In such a society, people nurture lifelong loyalty to the ingroup and develop a dependence relationship (Hofstede, 1997).

⁶ For example, when asked “What do you do [for a living]?”, whereas a Western person tends to respond with an occupation (for example, engineer or bus driver), a Japanese worker tends to identify the organisation (for example, “I work for Sony,” or “I work for the City Council”).

Hofstede (1997) introduces Japan as one of the countries that forms a collectivist society in which conformity and harmony are particularly highly valued in social interactions. Conformity can be explained by the Japanese proverb, “the nail that stands out gets pounded down,” or the term, “tall poppy syndrome”⁷ which is used in Australia and New Zealand. In the classroom in Japan, for example, students hesitate to speak up in large groups, especially if there are some outgroup members included. Hofstede experienced teaching a collectivist class and discovered that there were some teaching styles students felt more comfortable with. He found that it worked well to give the students some time to discuss a question as well as to decide who would answer, rotating the role of this spokesperson, and taking turns in any group activities. This type of adaptation in teaching methods is useful for my thesis as my participants will also adapt their teaching methods to address cultural needs of their students.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) discuss that most collective societies of the world appear extremely preoccupied with achievement and that the emphasis on achievement motivation is derived from a desire to fit into the group. The achievement motivation of a student does not necessarily relate to his/her personal accomplishment, but rather to others such as family and teachers with whom he/she maintains a reciprocal interdependent relationship. Some studies also reported that strong motivation in achievement was positively correlated with familism and filial piety (Yu, 1974; Asakawa, 2001). In this context, therefore, achievement of the student can be one of the ways to fulfill his/her role within the family (Markus and Kitayama, 1991).

Japanese organisations including workplaces also form a collectivist society. The relationship between employer and employee resembles a family relationship in which employees are protected from dismissal in exchange for loyalty and this normally applies to the so-called ‘permanent’ employees (Hofstede, 1997). Furnham (2005) introduces patterns and preferences that influence Japanese manufacturing

⁷ “Tall poppy syndrome” means that the people who stand out tend to get criticised by being perceived as presumptuous because of their higher economic, social or political positions (Kirkwood, 2007). Perhaps the term, “*ashi o hipparu*” (“drag on someone’s legs”) is even more through-going, because by “dragging on someone’s legs” a person is prevented from becoming a “tall poppy/sticking out nail” in the first place. This psychology results in not only reluctance on the part of individuals to display signs of excellence, but also leads to efforts to actively conceal one’s strengths and abilities.

success in terms of quality, productivity, industrial relations and export success. ‘Consensual decision-making,’ ‘collective responsibility,’ and ‘holistic concern for employees’ are some of the strategies that Japanese organisations adopt in which the idea of collectivism is reflected. For instance, ‘collective responsibility’ refers to the fact that all members are responsible for success or failure of their organisation. ‘Holistic concern for employees’ refers to the employer’s concern for the welfare of employees which “fosters intimacy between employees and enhances involvement with the organisation” (p.782).

b) Japanese Traditional Values

Japanese people live in the collective social structure in which familial and group priorities often prevail over personal priorities and preferences. This collective orientation is reflected in Japanese thought and behaviour such as “valuing duty, obligation, and responsibility” (Marsella, 1993). This section introduces cultural beliefs and values that influence thought and behaviour of Japanese people. It also focuses on shame, one of the “moral emotions” (Tangney, 1992), that is considered to foster moral behaviour in Japanese people.

(i) Influence of Confucianism and Buddhism

Confucianism (that is, a system of philosophy developed by Confucius, 551–479 B.C.E.) has been one of the teachings that influence Japanese thought and behaviour. It has been regarded as a code of moral precepts in Japan. While it is acknowledged that Japanese society is polytheistic—visiting a *Shinto* shrine to celebrate an auspicious occasion such as a wedding; burial according to Buddhist rites; and the monogamous system in marriage that was introduced through Christian morals—the teachings of Confucius had a great impact on Japanese people’s thought and life from at least the sixth century C.E.

Confucianism was introduced from China via Korea into Japan in the third century and was initially taught as part of the general education fit for the aristocracy. The principles of Confucianism include personal and governmental morality such as ethics, correctness of social relationships, justice and sincerity. For instance, recognising the value of and concern for others is regarded as being a virtue. Emphasis is put on the realistic aspects of Japanese life such as family loyalty, respect for the wisdom of age,

ancestor worship, respect for education, and willingness to be hard-working (Yao, 2000).

With the rise of the Tokugawa⁸ shoguns, Confucianism became more and more important because the shoguns started to make use of Confucian statecraft for governing the country. Many young reformers were also influenced by Confucian social morality to succeed in the great Meiji⁹ reforms (1868). Confucianism still contributes to the formation of Japanese culture in a modern society (Bethrong and Nagai-Bethrong, 2000, p.5).

Buddhism, which was introduced into Japan via Korea in the early sixth century, has also played an important role in the spiritual and cultural aspects of Japanese life. For instance, the Buddhist systematic philosophy strongly influenced rituals, architecture, and medicine (Tanaka, 1990). On the other hand, the concept of new Buddhist teachings from China spread among the people, including not only the military warrior class but also the commoners when political and social unrest occurred during the Kamakura period (1192–1333). Zen meditation, for example, was one of the ways to rid oneself of worldly thoughts such as fears and insecurity. Japanese culture extols tolerance for difficulties and endurance of hardships. These attitudes are derived from Buddhism and are related to the social values of interdependence (Marsella, 1993).

(ii) Culture of Shame

In *The Chrysanthemum and the Sword*,¹⁰ Benedict (1946) pointed out that Japanese people live in a shame culture that differs from that of people living in a guilt culture. In her study, she analysed how Japanese people behave in the face of the negative events such as defeats, in contrast to people living in a guilt culture. She describes the difference between the two cultures.

⁸ The Tokugawa shogunate ruled Japan by a feudal military dictatorship during the Edo period (1603–1867) until the Meiji Restoration.

⁹ The Meiji period (1868–1912) started at the Meiji Restoration that marked the start of Japan's modernisation and industrialisation.

¹⁰ *The Chrysanthemum and the Sword* was written to provide information about the Japanese as an assignment given by the American government during World War II. It was first published in 1946.

In a culture where shame is a major sanction, people are chagrined about acts which we expect people to feel guilty about. This chagrin can be very intense and it cannot be relieved, as guilt can be, by confession and atonement. ... True shame cultures rely on external sanctions for good behavior, not, as true guilt cultures do, on an internalized conviction of sin (pp.156–157).

She explains that shame cultures do not provide confession because “shame is a reaction to other people’s criticism and requires an audience” (p.157). While a person in a guilt culture can gain relief by confession, a person in a shame culture will not experience relief when he/she makes his/her fault public even to a confessor. Velayutham and Perera (2004) commented that “Japan is a realm of multivariate gods” (p.59) that is in contrast to European countries where God is the single absolute being. Instead of a single absolute being making an individual aware of his/her guilt, being ashamed in front of others is regarded as a powerful driving force for people in Japan. Thus, for Japanese people, “a failure to follow their explicit signposts of good behavior, a failure to balance obligations or to foresee contingencies is a shame” (Benedict, 1977, p.157).

In their research on the influence of emotions and culture on accountability and governance, Velayutham and Perera (2004) point out the difference between a shame culture and a guilt culture. They suggest that accountability is a cultural practice closely related to the emotional state of guilt which is found in individualistic, small distance societies rather than in collectivistic, large power distance societies. They concluded their discussion to the effect that guilt cultures show a preference for a more open and publicly accountable approach, whereas shame cultures show a preference for confidentiality and the restriction of disclosure of information to those who are closely involved. Therefore, it may not be feasible to demand more accountability to be practised in shame-prone cultures (that is, by Asian countries) because “shame cultures will show a preference for accounting values exhibiting statutory control, uniformity, conservatism and secrecy” (p.60).

This study implied that people in a shame culture live in a collectivist society where people are more likely to experience the emotional state of shame or loss of face when confronting negative events in interpersonal contexts. Japanese people also live in a

culture where shame is more prominent than guilt and, as Benedict (1946) pointed out, they are more aware of the social network and personal obligations.

In short, in the Judeo-Christian tradition, a sense of “shame” implies consciousness of having broken some moral code, that is to say, of committing a “sin.” When the situation is not one of having violated any moral or ethical code, but involves only the individual’s sense of personal inadequacy, the resulting feeling tends to be regarded as “embarrassment.” In Confucian-based societies, on the other hand, ignorance or a sense of inadequacy runs counter to the Confucian ethics of self-cultivation, industriousness, diligence and so on, and the result is that failure to meet the exigencies of any given situation results in a sense of personal “shame.” My participant teachers are Japanese native speakers and therefore they may express their feeling of “shame” rather than “embarrassment” when they talk about the negative events in interpersonal contexts, if they maintain Japanese cultural values.

c) Studies on Japanese Values and Research Findings

A number of studies have illustrated that Asian societies share cultural values such as collectivism and hierarchical relationships derived from the traditional Confucian and Buddhist philosophy (Barry and Beitel, 2006; Okazaki, 1997; Sue and Sue, 2003; Yeh and Huang, 1996). Most of these studies have been conducted using clinical perspectives, focusing on the cultural values of people from Asian countries and their adjustment problems in a foreign context. Some of these studies also explore the differences in values among Asian peoples and identify the attributes unique to each culture.

Yeh and Inoue (2002) conducted a survey to examine cultural adjustment problems, and the differences across ethnic groups among 274 Asian immigrant high school students in the United States: 114 (41.6 per cent) were Chinese, 113 (41.2 per cent) were Korean, and 47 (17.2 per cent) were Japanese, who reported that they had been in the United States for an average of 5.04 years. Participants completed a demographic questionnaire for providing information on age, gender, grade, ethnicity and friends, and also responded to two open-ended questions relating to difficulties associated with living in the United States, coping attitudes/strategies, and counselling experience. The results revealed that the common cultural adjustment difficulties

across all groups were found in communication, unfamiliar custom and values, interpersonal relationships, and academics/career issues. When exploring the differences in adjustment difficulties across the three ethnic groups, the results salient to the Japanese group revealed that no Japanese students reported intergenerational conflict. Japanese students were, however, more likely to have difficulties with interpersonal relationships compared to Korean and Chinese students. The coping strategies common to all the groups included 'to seek social support,' 'to keep to self,' and 'to involve creative activities.' Regarding the differences in coping strategies across all groups, the results showed that Japanese students were significantly more likely to seek social support than Korean and Chinese students.

Yeh and Inoue (2002) attributed the problem Japanese students have in interpersonal relationships to the traditional Japanese value which emphasises maintaining harmonious relationships with others. Yeh and Inoue explained that this value may conflict with Western notions of self and typically more independence-oriented individuals in the United States (p.77). One of the coping strategies, 'to seek social support,' which was found to be the most utilised strategy among Japanese students, was attributed to their collectivism identity that values the social network (Ibid., 2002). The finding that Japanese students have no intergenerational conflict is assumed to relate to traditional social values (for example, family loyalty, ancestor worship, respect for elders) influenced by Confucianism.

These findings are useful for this thesis because they provide suggestions of behaviours that may or may not be observed in Japanese native speaker teachers.

Other studies have focused on the traditional values of Japanese people in comparison with other ethnic cultural groups. One study explored the perception of family values and roles among Japanese Americans in order to improve therapeutic intervention (Ching, McDermott, Fukunaga, Yanagida, Mann, and Waldron, 1995). Participants who consisted of two major ethnic groups—Americans of Japanese ancestry (AJAs) and Americans of European ancestry (AEAs)—were interviewed about their family values. Two major themes emerged in analysis, which differentiated the perception of Americans of Japanese ancestry from that of Americans of European ancestry. These two themes were (1) the hierarchical status within the family such as a strong gender

role differentiation with dominance in the male role, and (2) the harmony within the family through interpersonal acceptance and cooperation. These findings were salient to Japanese Americans who showed regard for accepting positive mutual social interactions and achieving harmony through group facilitation. The perception of American Japanese therefore indicated that their Japanese values are strongly maintained within the family. This study demonstrated that Japanese Americans' perception of family values and roles is influenced by Confucian, Buddhist and Taoist traditional philosophy that emphasises hierarchical status orientation, and respect and deference for authority figures.

Research on attitudes and values has also been conducted in the field of international business and management to promote understanding of cross-cultural differences. Due to the global changes in employment and internationalisation of business and people, the workforce has become culturally diverse; hence, there have been more problems concerning cross-cultural management, particularly with regard to issues of "cultural differences in work motivation" and "the influence of national culture on work values" (Furnham, 2005, p.733).

In a study on cultural differences in values, Soutar, Grainger, and Hedges (1999) examined stereotypical views of national culture among Australians and Japanese working in Australian and Japanese organisations in both countries. Respondents (that is, Australians working in Japan, Australians working in Australia, Japanese working in Japan, Japanese working in Australia) were asked to rate the importance of cultural values in Australia and Japan using the List of Values (LOV) instrument developed by Kahle (1983). The List of Values included personal, social and relationship scale statements. The results revealed that Australian respondents felt that Japanese respondents were more concerned about 'belonging' and 'being well respected,' while Japanese respondents felt that 'relationships' were most important to them. Also, both Australian and Japanese respondents felt that 'belonging' and 'being well respected' were more important for Japanese people than for Australians. The results indicated that current exposure to the counterpart society had affected perceptions of values. For instance, Japanese views of Japanese values moved closer to Australian views of Japanese values when the reference point was Australia. It was also found that experiences in the counterpart culture and development of close personal and

professional relationships contributed to more intimate knowledge of counterpart cultures and societies. The recommendations included understanding the current differences in views of national culture, and the use of experienced staff and professionals to provide awareness programmes for cultural understanding in order to facilitate international business.

Abrams, Ando, and Hinkle (1998) conducted a survey to investigate turnover intentions in Japanese and British commercial and academic organisations, applying the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) and Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Tajfel, 1982) (see also the section “Barriers to Employment in New Zealand” in this chapter for the explanation of Social Identity Theory). Questionnaires included measures on turnover intention, attitude toward leaving the organisation, subjective norms (that is, perceived approval for leaving), and organisational identification (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). The Theory of Reasoned Action postulates that “a person’s intention to perform (or not to perform) a behavior is the immediate determinant of that action” (Ajzen, 1988, p.117) and that this intention is a function of two basic factors: the individual’s attitude toward the behaviour, and the person’s subjective norm, that is his/her perception of social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour. The Theory of Reasoned Action is, therefore, useful for predicting intention from individual’s attitudes and normative beliefs; and in the context of the study, to predict turnover intention in an organisation. Social Identity Theory explains that social identity derives from category and group memberships and that these memberships are important for self-conceptions because they contribute to a person’s identity. Thus Social Identity Theory is useful for predicting group-serving behaviour with an emphasis on the relationship between behaviour and identity (Abrams, Ando, and Hinkle, 1998).

The results showed that British workers who identified more strongly with the organisation had lower turnover intentions, whereas Japanese workers who identified more strongly and who had lower subjective norms had lower turnover intentions. Theoretical expectation from the Theory of Reasoned Action was partially supported by the result showing that only subjective norms were a significant predictor of turnover intentions. Theoretical expectation from Social Identity Theory was supported by the result that higher identification with the organisation was associated

with lower turnover intentions and conversely that organisational identification was the most important predictor of turnover intentions. The results in terms of national differences revealed that turnover intentions were significantly lower among Japanese workers than British workers. Also, organisational identification was significantly stronger for Japanese workers. This study showed the difference between individualistic cultures (for example, British) and collectivistic cultures (for example, Japanese). The results revealed that subjective normative pressure from the relationships with family, colleagues and supervisors was a more important determinant of turnover intentions for Japanese workers than for British workers. This indicated that Japanese workers were more concerned about interdependent relationships, and more willing to maintain group membership and to work on organisational goals (Ibid., 1998).

The above studies of Japanese values have implications for this thesis because my participants emigrated from a collectivist society (Japan) to a mainly individualistic society (New Zealand). The literature has also highlighted that Japanese people live in a shame culture that is in contrast to living in a guilt culture. The difference in cultural values may be reflected in the adjustment processes of Japanese native speaker teachers at their workplace and their teaching practices in New Zealand.

In this section, Japanese culture and values were introduced because they are part of my participant Japanese teachers' cultural values that they had cultivated in their home country, Japan. The following section focuses on teacher development, as my participant Japanese teachers developed their teaching skills through teaching experiences in New Zealand.

4. Teacher Development

Because this thesis focuses on the professional development of a number of teachers, literature on the essential building blocks for teachers is useful. The literature emphasises different aspects of teacher development. One considers what motivates people to take teaching as a career; another considers research on what it means to become or to be a teacher. Others take a theoretical view of the best ways to increase teaching ability.

a) Motivations for Choosing to Teach

A large number of qualitative studies have been conducted to investigate motivations for choosing to teach as a career and expectations of teaching among student/trainee or beginning teachers in various countries (Cameron, Baker, and Lovett, 2006; Kyriacou and Koberi; 1998; Manuela and Hughes, 2006; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003; Reid and Caudwell, 1997). The main purpose for these studies was to examine not only teaching career satisfaction but also the reasons for teacher retention and early career teacher attrition. Although some differences in motivations were likely to exist in different social and cultural contexts in which teaching occurred, the main reasons found appeared to be applicable to a wide variety of countries (Kyriacou and Koberi, 1998). These are mostly concerned with working conditions (for example, secure job, long holidays, career status), job satisfaction (for example, enjoyment in teaching, helping children, contributing to society), and maintaining interests (for example, intellectual challenge, specialising in subjects) (e.g., Brown, 1992; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000).

Using a questionnaire comprising structured and unstructured questions, Brown (1992) explored beginner teachers' reasons for choosing teaching as a career in Jamaica. He analysed the results through coding according to the themes which emerged. The main reasons found were 'love of the teaching profession,' 'love of and wanting to help children,' 'contribution to society/country,' 'secure job,' 'vacation/working hours,' and 'career status.' Similarly, Kyriacou and Koberi (1998) used a 3-point scale questionnaire to discover the main reasons that student teachers become teachers of English in Slovenia. Reasons were 'I enjoy the subject I will teach,' 'English is important to me,' and 'I want to help pupils succeed.'

Reid and Caudwell (1997) explored the reasons for choosing to teach among twenty-eight volunteer secondary PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education) students in England. They conducted semi-structured interviews which included questions, such as 'why they did not want a job other than teaching,' 'why they wanted to be a secondary school teacher,' and 'what factors had been important in the decision to take the PGCE course.' The most outstanding salient reasons were 'enjoying working with children,' and 'feeling that teaching would bring high job satisfaction.' Other main reasons were related to holidays, working hours, salaries, security, and having

few other job opportunities. The main reasons for not choosing other jobs included 'a preference for working atmosphere in teaching' and 'the wish to avoid an office job.' The main reasons for choosing to teach at a secondary school were 'wanting to specialise,' 'to maintain interest in their degrees,' and 'to teach at a high academic level.'

While these studies targeted the trainee students who had already decided to become a teacher, Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000) explored 298 undergraduates' views of teaching as a career choice in England. They divided student questionnaire respondents into three groups: those who were definitely not considering teaching, those who were seriously considering teaching, and those who were undecided. The results revealed that the important factors in choosing a teaching career were similar to each group: 'a job that I will find enjoyable,' 'colleagues that I can get along with,' 'pleasant working conditions,' 'a secure job,' and 'a career that provides intellectual challenges.' The possible factors that may encourage consideration of a teaching career were: 'teachers get long holidays,' 'my wish to share my knowledge with others,' and 'fees are not charged for PGCE courses,' whereas the discouraging factors included 'dealing with disruptive pupils,' 'the amount of bureaucratic tasks to perform,' and 'the amount of funding that schools receive.' Particular questions were asked of a group of students who could be encouraged to teach. The results revealed that factors encouraging the choice of teaching as a career were: 'an increase in the quality of resource for teaching,' 'higher top salaries for teachers and head-teachers,' and 'improvement in the working environment.'

In a more recent study conducted by Manuel and Hughes (2006), motivations of seventy-nine pre-service teacher education students, specialising in secondary school teaching in Australia, were investigated in relation to teacher recruitment, retention and attrition. Recently in Australia, "there has been a wave of interest in teaching as a career" (p.5) for graduates and career-changers. In this study, the factors that influenced the decision to teach, including perceptions of teaching, teachers and students, expectations of teaching as a career, and professional goals, were explored through a questionnaire with open-ended and multiple-choice questions. The results revealed that intrinsic motivations, such as personal fulfillment, enjoyment of subject, working with young people, life style, and working conditions, were the main reasons

for choosing to teach. In response to the perceptions of the effective teacher, participants chose one quality that they would bring to the teaching profession. They were 'love / care / service / help / understanding / respect / patience,' 'enthusiasm / motivation / inspiration / passion,' and 'humor / fun / happiness.' Attributes of an effective teacher were 'communication / listening skills,' 'loving / caring / kind / supportive / genuine,' and 'passionate / motivated.' In response to identifying major expectations of teaching as a career, more than eighty per cent of the participants expected it to be 'challenging and rewarding.' Other expectations were 'fulfilling' and 'long-term career.' Other findings included the influence of a former/current teacher or a mentor. More than seventy-three per cent of the participants had a significant teacher or mentor who influenced their decision to become a teacher.

While many researchers investigated motivations and expectations in teaching among students or beginning teachers, Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant (2003) investigated motivations for becoming secondary teachers of career-changers who had been working in England in fields other than teaching. According to the information provided in this study, the current climate in teaching has indicated that it is hard to determine whether the image of teaching is an attractive one (p.95). This investigation therefore aimed to provide ways of improving the policy-making at training institutions for the purpose of long-term retention.

In this study, Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant conducted in-depth interviews among thirty-four teacher trainees whose prior occupations varied. They traced the backgrounds of their participants such as events and processes that had led them to decide to change their careers. Previous work experience of the participants included professions in industry or business in the areas of law, management, accounting, insurance, and engineering; freelancer such as artistic decorator, translator, and actor; and others such as builder and office worker. Interview questions included reasons for switching careers, perceptions of participants about teaching prior to their actual teaching, and current experience as a teacher trainee.

The results showed that various "pull and push" factors had influenced the trainees' decisions to become teachers (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003, p.100). One of the push factors was the dissatisfaction of the participants with the nature of

previous jobs such as insecure working conditions. On the other hand, one of the pull factors was the perception of participants regarding the conditions of teaching that included stability, security and better long-term prospects. Some teachers indicated that changing their perspectives on life influenced choosing a teaching career. One of the salient reasons for choosing to teach at secondary school was that the respondents wanted to use specialist subject knowledge.

The above research centres on experiences of teachers outside New Zealand. There is, however, some very relevant recent research conducted in New Zealand. As part of their longitudinal study, Cameron, Barker, and Lovett (2006) examined reasons for becoming a teacher of fifty-seven primary and secondary teachers in New Zealand. Their study explores the experiences of teachers who will be tracked over a four-year period from 2005 to 2009 by conducting survey and interviews. Some findings have been released as a phase one overview (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006) in which the following themes emerged: motivation to teach, views on initial teacher education, views on induction, development of professional identities, and opportunities for on-going learning. Other findings from this survey include a study on the perceptions, motivations and experiences of a group of teachers who are judged to have the potential to become strong teachers (Lovett, 2006). The findings identified the most common reason for choosing to teach was ‘the desire to work in an area that makes a real contribution to society by making a difference to learning and life chances of the next generation’ (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006, p.15). Other reasons for choosing to teach included ‘enjoyment of being the company of children/young people,’ ‘an experience frequently gained by youth work,’ ‘being influenced by members of the family who are teachers,’ and ‘being able to fulfill personal needs lacking in other careers.’ The results also revealed that although some teachers perceived a lower status of teaching because of a number of higher status career options available to them, others felt that ‘teaching was a career to be proud of, regardless of its status’ (Ibid, p.15).

The above research on motivations and expectations in teaching are relevant to my study as they help me understand what makes people choose teaching as a career. The findings of the study on career changers are valuable because many of my participants are also career changers. The research conducted to explore teachers’ experiences in

New Zealand (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006) is useful to my study because it helps me understand the New Zealand teachers' perceptions of teaching in New Zealand. Although it does not particularly pay attention to immigrant teachers' experiences (one out of fifty-seven participant teachers was identified as Asian, who was not specified as an immigrant), it provides the New Zealand context for teaching to help analyse my findings in the present research. The notion of "push" and "pull" factors is also useful in considering the experience of Japanese native speaker teachers in this thesis.

b) Different Theoretical Approaches to Understanding Teacher Development

This thesis focuses on the teaching experiences of a number of Japanese native speakers working in New Zealand. Since they have different levels of teaching experience, literature about the ways that teachers develop will inform my analysis.

A major source of literature on teacher-training techniques is a book edited by Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) in which several researchers have described different approaches. According to Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), there are three main approaches in teacher development. One is a knowledge- and skills-based approach that focuses on methods for teaching and the ways of cultivating deeper knowledge to gain confidence as a teaching expert. Another approach is the humanistic approach that emphasises the importance of personal development of teachers with reference to personal maturity and the human life cycle. The other approach focuses on contextual factors such as environmental work conditions that influence teachers' professional development.

(i) Knowledge- and skills-based Approach

Knowledge- and skills-based approach has been recognised as one of the effective ways to provide improved learning opportunities and increase teaching ability. It focuses on methods, such as expertise in classroom management, teaching skills for mixed-ability classes, and strategies for teaching certain subjects. Jackson (1992) describes this approach as acquiring "the way of know-how" (p.64), and it involves strategies for planning, evaluating and organising classrooms. In this approach, teachers are required to learn new skills and to gain more knowledge so as to meet the various needs of students.

Borko and Putnam (1995) propose a conceptualised framework for the knowledge base of teaching which comprises three domains of knowledge that relate to teachers' instructional practices: "general pedagogical knowledge," "subject-matter knowledge," and "pedagogical content knowledge" (p.38). General pedagogical knowledge refers to knowledge of strategies and arrangement for creating an effective learning environment. This domain emphasises the teacher's role as the mediator of student learning. For instance, teachers are required to promote active cognitive processing of student learning by providing appropriate learning methods, such as problem solving, critical thinking, and self-regulated learning. Student evaluation is also one of the components in this domain. Evaluation strategies that teachers use include "extended interviews," "observation of group problem-solving tasks," and "recording and scoring student performance in various forms of learning tasks" (Borko and Putnam, 1995, p.40). Classroom management is one of the most prominent aspects of this domain in which teachers adopt strategies for establishing rules and procedures, organising classrooms, monitoring and directing classroom activities, and managing misbehaviour. Using the effective management strategies, teachers create an environment in which students are able to work efficiently. Furthermore, teachers need to be aware of learners' prior knowledge about particular topics and the role of motivation in learning.

Subject-matter knowledge is another domain that includes "knowledge of content," "substantive structures," (p.43) and "syntactic structures" (p.45). Knowledge of content and substantive structures are often combined in conceptual frameworks that provide the criteria for understanding of particular topics. In the case of teaching mathematics for understanding, for instance, Ball (as cited in Borko and Putnam, 1995, p.43) suggests that teachers' knowledge of concepts and procedures should be correct and that teachers must understand the underlying principles and meanings. Teachers also need to appreciate and understand the connections among mathematical ideas (Ball, 1990, p.458). Syntactic structures refer to the ways of establishing new knowledge and determining the validity of claims by understanding the nature of that knowledge (for example, the meaning of knowing and doing mathematics). It involves inquiry that emphasises the processes of reasoning to construct knowledge of a discipline. Subject-matter knowledge is essential for teaching because it "promotes understanding and flexible problem solving" (Borko and Putnam, 1995, p.46).

Pedagogical content knowledge was first defined by Shulman (1986), who included “the most useful forms of representation of those ideas for the most regularly taught topics in one’s subject area,” or “the ways of presenting and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others” (p.9). Pedagogical content knowledge is also known as subject-specific pedagogical knowledge (Borko and Putnam, 1995). Grossman (1990) suggests that this knowledge consists of four central components: (1) knowledge and beliefs about the purposes for teaching a subject at different levels, namely, an overarching conception of teaching; (2) knowledge of students’ understanding, conceptions, misconceptions of particular subject areas; (3) knowledge of curriculum and curricular materials available for teaching a subject; and (4) knowledge of instructional strategies and representations for teaching particular topics (pp.8–9). Based on the Grossman’s elaboration, Borko and Putnam (1995) further explain that the first component (that is, overarching conception) guides the teacher in planning and carrying out instruction. For example, teachers utilise this conception for judgment about classroom objectives, instructional strategies and student assignments, curricular materials, and student evaluations. The second component refers to teacher’s knowledge about common student preconceptions and misconceptions of topics. This knowledge is utilised when teachers understand the common difficulties in particular subject areas and address those difficulties in useful forms of representation. The third component is knowledge about the curricular materials for particular subject matter. Utilising this knowledge, teachers do long-range planning or prioritise decisions about content coverage (p.50). The fourth component refers to knowledge of instructional representations for particular topics. Teachers use this knowledge to create a better understanding of specific topics. Instructional representations include models, examples, metaphors, simulations, demonstrations, or illustrations (Borko and Putnam, 1995).

Borko and Putnam argue that through their prior knowledge and existing beliefs, teachers come to understand new practices and activities and acquire more knowledge of subject matter, general pedagogy and subject-specific pedagogy. Within the conceptualised framework of the knowledge base of teaching, they suggest that teachers need to construct their own knowledge and develop their own strategies, and apply them to actual classrooms in order to facilitate students’ knowledge construction (p.59).

In the knowledge- and skills-based approach, it is inevitable for a prospective teacher to take professional courses. These courses include teacher training, induction, and professional development (PD) courses. In England, for instance, the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) one-year full-time teacher training course is offered for those who have a degree and intend to teach in the future. New Zealand has a similar system in which graduates or those who have qualifications that are recognised as equivalent to a degree normally take a teaching diploma course in a College of Education. In the teaching diploma course, New Zealand teacher trainees learn about the curriculum and a range of teaching strategies for becoming a teacher (Lang, 2008). In the first two years of teaching, beginning teachers are expected to learn more about teaching. In New Zealand, these two years are called the induction period, which will lead to registration as a teacher (p.242). Lang (2008) explains how New Zealand beginning teachers get started teaching with the great amount of support from tutor teachers and the Ministry of Education. For example, each beginning teacher is supported by a tutor teacher who provides advice and guidance according to the individual teacher's needs. The Ministry of Education provides a grant support, which is a 0.2 staffing allowance (p.244). This means that, for instance, beginning teachers work 0.2 less than fully registered full-time teachers and use the 0.2 staffing allowance for their professional development.

In Japan, students go to universities where they can get a teaching certificate by attending teacher training sections additional to their degree subjects. As new registered teachers, beginning teachers in Japan are required to participate in a compulsory one-year induction programme that consists of sixty days of mentor-based in-school and thirty days of out-of-school training courses. The content of the out-of-school courses include "basic knowledge of educational service personnel duties and ethics," "subject instruction," and "student guidance and counseling" (Collinson and Ono, 2001, p.227).

Apart from teacher training courses, not only beginning teachers but also experienced teachers are encouraged to participate in a variety of professional development (PD) courses. In Australian States, for instance, one of the popular forms of PD course has been conferences or seminars, which are organised either to address a specific topic area or to bring together professional groups of people. Many teachers in Australia

perceive long-term professional development as more effective than taking short courses (Ling and Mackenzie, 2001, p.91). In New Zealand, almost all schools require teachers to meet professional development goals as part of their on-going performance appraisal (Selby and Probert, 2004, p.249). For example, an information skills course has been offered by the Auckland College of Education's Infolink by which any teachers can develop their computer skills in different areas of the curriculum.

(ii) Humanistic Approach

Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) argue that “teacher development involves more than changing teacher's behaviour and that it also involves personal development” (p.7) in which one's development progresses through different stages. They emphasise the humanistic approach in which professional development is deeply connected with personal development of teachers. Here, it is important to consider the impact of the human life cycle on the process of teacher development. For instance, young teachers may not have reached a level of personal maturity in spite of having a strong and integrated sense of self with an ability to relate to and work with others. Young teachers also tend to immerse themselves in their work with energy and idealism. On the other hand, teachers in the mid-life span may have less interest in innovations and consequent changes, while they have more life experience. Whereas some teachers are valued as receiving promotions that result in increasing their incentives in career development, others may miss such opportunities in their career paths because of their personal circumstances. These personal differences such as one's position in the human life cycle influence the process of teacher development (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). This humanistic approach to teacher career development fits well with Super's general theory of career development described earlier in this literature review.

Fessler (1995) proposes a comprehensive framework of teacher career cycle called the Teacher Career Cycle Model that “responds to environmental conditions” (p.179) including personal and organisational influences. This model has been expanded from previous work that focuses on the developmental stages of teachers. Fessler introduces some of the earlier models in which teachers go through different stages in teacher development. For instance, Unruh and Turner (as cited in Fessler, 1995, p.173)

propose the notion of career stages by presenting three main periods that teachers go through during the process of career development. These periods are “initial teaching period” (approximately one to five years), “period of building security” (approximately six to fifteen years), and “maturing period” (approximately fifteen years and more). The initial teaching period involves problems such as management and curriculum development, and acceptance by other staff. The period of building security involves establishment as a teacher working on improvement of their teaching and salary increases through, for example, taking additional courses. The maturing period occurs when teachers find security in professional life. Involvement in other areas of personal interests and verification of changes as a process may come together to form new ideas during this period.

The idea that development progresses through stages is also supported by Katz (as cited in Fessler, 1995, p.174) who focuses more on the earlier years of teachers’ professional development and describes four main developmental stages of preschool teachers in relation to training needs. The first stage called “survival” (first year) requires on-site support and constant training. The second stage, “consolidation” (second year), still involves on-site assistance and access to specialists, and receiving advice from consultants. The third stage is “renewal” (third to fourth year) in which teachers become receptive to experiences in professional development programmes such as conferences and workshops. They also start widening the scope of their reading of journals and magazines. The stage of “maturity” (third year to fifth year and beyond) may come earlier or later depending on the individual. During the fourth stage teachers come to recognise themselves as teachers. This last stage requires teachers to get involved in professional activities such as seminars, institutes, courses, and degree programmes.

The two models proposed by Unruh and Turner (1970) and Katz (1972) depict the various stages of teacher development; however, Fessler (1995) argues that these models limit further differentiation at later stages in which matured teachers continue to grow and change. He has also recognised that earlier models do not account for the environmental conditions which influence the process of teacher development. He has therefore developed the Teacher Career Cycle Model that includes environmental factors such as personal developmental changes. The stages of this cycle consist of

pre-service, induction, competency building, enthusiastic and growing, career frustration, career stability, career wind-down, and career exit. In this model, the teacher's career cycle is influenced by two main external environmental factors: personal and organisational. Personal environmental factors are family, positive critical incidents (for example, marriage, birth of children), crises (for example, death of a close relative, financial loss), individual dispositions (for example, personality, aspirations, goals), avocational interests, and life stages (for example, personal priorities, life goals). These personal variables impact upon the career cycle and may become the driving force in influencing job behaviour. On the other hand, organisational environmental factors, including school regulations, management style, public trust, societal expectations (for example, community goals, ethics, values), professional organisations, and unions may also have a positive/negative impact on the career cycle. Fessler's point of view is similar to the view of Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) in that teacher development is deeply concerned with personal development.

The humanistic approach in teacher development thus involves the individual teacher who goes through various developmental stages both as a teacher and as a person. In contrast, Thiessen (1992) argues that teacher development involves not only the individual teacher but also other teachers and their students. His approach is known as classroom-based teacher development (CBTD) that focuses on student-teacher learning situations in which three main modes are presented: "teachers on their own," "teachers with teachers," and "teachers and students." In contrast to the traditional approach, the conditions of CBTD recognise that teachers are rather co-learners and develop within the classroom. In CBTD, teachers also "pursue changes which are practical but which also have personal, educational and social priority" (p.91).

In the mode of "teachers on their own," teachers initiate to improve their learning environment (for example, quality of teacher-student interaction) through self-directed development. For instance, teachers may maintain journals to describe significant people, situations, forces, or events in relation to classroom experiences. They also engage in self-evaluation of issues such as perceived contradictions, problems, and dilemmas. The mode of "teachers with teachers," is characterised by collegial and collaborative work among teachers. Examples of this mode include peer

coaching, advising teachers, co-operative professional development, and mentoring. For instance, two or more teachers form partnerships to work on strategies and resources, compare ideas on the structure in topics and approaches, and evaluate their work. Teachers co-operate to improve their classroom practices through their reciprocal relationships. The mode of “teachers and students” requires three main principles: (1) teachers and students are active participants in all aspects of classroom life; (2) different positions of teachers and students in the classroom limit the extent to which they work as equal partners; and (3) the symmetrical dimensions of teacher–student relationships sustain and extend the partnership (p.96). In this mode, teachers dominate the relationship with students but ask students to participate in determining classroom structures and activities. Teachers also engage students in evaluating teaching to explore effective teaching strategies (Thiessen, 1992).

Researchers who take a humanistic approach in teacher development suggest different methods to explore the ways of self-understanding with the idea that self-knowledge and self-understanding is a key to professional growth (Connelly and Clandinin, 1999). For instance, Clark (1992) introduces seven principles for self-directed professional development. He suggests that writing one’s own credo of teaching helps reveal the changes in teaching over time, and becomes useful for designing one’s own course of professional development. His other suggestions include ‘making a five-year plan,’ ‘learning to treat oneself with respect,’ and ‘making public the ways in which one is developing one’s teaching career’ that also help organise and make sense of one’s own professional development as a teacher. Oberg and Underwood (1992) suggest similar methods for self-development for establishing a teaching career. Through writing personal journals about their own teaching and themselves, teachers are able to discover that their ‘ground’ changes over time. This ground probing contributes to “an intensely personal and yet objectively critical examination of oneself as a professional educator” (p.164). On the other hand, Jackson (1992) who proposes humanistic ways of approaching teacher development explains that teachers often learn a skill and gain knowledge from researchers or colleagues through various resources and that they also learn through their own experience while passing on those skills to novice teachers.

(iii) Contextual Approach

The nature of the context involved in teaching often determines the process and success of teacher development (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). Hargreaves and Fullan argue that knowledge- and skills-based approach is a matter of non-negotiable technical skills and that teacher training, in which this approach has been emphasised, is often implemented out of context (Ibid., 1992, p.6). They therefore emphasise the importance of a contextualised approach in teacher development. The contextual approach involves two broad ways that influence teacher development: one is the context of teachers' working environmental conditions; the other is the context of teaching itself (Ibid., 1992, p.13). For instance, working conditions include time allocations for classes and preparation, or extra-curricular activities. It is crucial for teachers to have enough time for planning and organising classes or other activities. It is also important for teachers to maintain a support system that involves school and colleagues (for example, mentoring). These supportive environmental conditions enable teachers to perform effectively in the classroom and continue to improve their teaching (Hopkins, Beresford, and West, 1998, p.132). The context of teaching itself includes class size, quality of teaching resources, and whether teachers are given opportunities on a regular basis for updated teaching training such as taking professional development courses. All these contextual factors are taken into account in relation to the teachers' professional development.

A number of researchers have focused on collaboration and collegiality as one of the most important aspects with regard to environmental teaching conditions (Hargreaves, 1994; Hopkins, Beresford, and West, 1998; Nias, Southworth, and Yeomans, 1989; Thiessen, 1992). Hopkins, Beresford, and West (1998) emphasise that teacher development occurs most effectively with a culture of collaboration and that teachers are more inclined to dedicate themselves to the improvement of teaching in the context of supportive collegial relationships (p.132). Hargreaves (1992) argues that teachers do not develop their strategies and styles of teaching entirely by themselves (p.217), and emphasises the importance of cultures of teaching. Teachers may learn from discussions and meetings in which new programmes are introduced. They also learn from performance appraisal, clinical supervision, and peer coaching. They go through various experiences such as serving as a mentor, exercising leadership as a subject expert, and supervising extra-curricular activities.

“Leadership” is another important contextual factor which affects the success of teacher development efforts (Hargreaves, 1992, p.14). Effective and positive leadership is important to help provide a supportive context at school. Hopkins (1990) discusses the role of school leader and emphasises the importance of his/her involvement “in the range of activities required by a particular improvement effort” (p.184). For instance, school leaders use relevant strategies such as involvement of other staff in the decision-making process, valuing staff contributions and initiatives, and developing school cultures. Pratte and Rury (1991) also emphasise that it is crucial to maintain “the establishment of an employee–management partnership: a relation of mutual respect, open communication, shared success, mutual aid, and trust between teachers and their immediate supervisors (such as principals and school boards)” (pp.59–60). All these aspects involve the culture of teaching, the relationships between teachers and their colleagues, which “provide a vital context for teacher development” (Hargreaves, 1992, p.218).

Bullough and Giltin (1995) introduce methodologies for exploring self and school contexts. They suggest that it is meaningful to write one’s own life history or educational autobiography in order to reflect upon oneself, which may help begin to change one’s beliefs or assumptions (p.25). This is similar to Thiessen’s (1992) classroom-based teacher development (CBTD) approach in the mode of “teachers on their own” in which teachers maintain journals to describe classroom experiences. Bullough and Giltin also suggest that analysing personal teaching metaphors is another way to explore teacher identity for negotiating a role as a teacher according to the contexts involved (p.51). My research employed the use of metaphor both in survey and interview in order to explore how my participants perceive their role as a teacher and what it means to them to teach in New Zealand schools.

Most of the above literature aims to help teacher trainees develop. It provides a useful set of ideas to compare with the experience of my participants. The next section examines the process of learning to become a teacher. It focuses on the difficulties that beginning teachers face in their teaching.

c) Becoming a Teacher

A number of studies identified the difficulties that beginning teachers faced in teaching and explored its solutions (Bezzina, 2006; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986; Lang, 1999; Liu and Fisher, 2006). The main difficulties that beginning teachers face pertain to classroom management and discipline, while others include isolation, heavy workload, unsuitable teaching materials, and student evaluation (Veenman, 1984). The issue of isolation may relate to mentoring or a support system that is also one of the most crucial factors in professional growth (Ibid., 1984). This section reviews the literature on these issues that teachers are most likely to face during the earlier stages of learning to become a teacher. It also discusses the strategies for effective teaching, focusing on classroom management that has been identified as being one of the greatest concerns for beginning teachers (e.g., Bezzina, 2006; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986).

(i) Problems of Novice Teachers

Many researchers have found that teachers go through different stages during professional development (Farrell, 2003; Guskey, 1995; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986). Others have found that teachers are most likely to face difficulties in their earlier years of teaching (Bezzina, 2006; Bullough and Baughman, 1997; Bullough and Gitlin, 1995; Bullough, Knowels, and Crow, 1989; 1992; Lang, 1999). Huberman (1989) specified two main developmental stages in teaching: “career entry” or “survival and discovery,” and “stabilization.” During the stage of “career entry” which is the first to third year of teaching, teachers are most likely to encounter complexity in teaching where “survival and discovery” coexist (p.33). The succeeding “stabilization” phase, which occurs on the fourth to sixth year of teaching, is followed by the stage of complexity where teacher’s subjective choice may be more involved (p.34). Research on experience of beginning teachers focuses on the process of these changes that occur at different stages in teacher development and explores the development patterns of teachers’ “conceptions of self” (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995, p.43) and their behaviours.

Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz (1986) explored experience of beginning teachers in transition from Teachers’ College to classroom in Israel. They interviewed twelve teachers in their first years of teaching in high school through which four main issues

were identified: (1) the education programme was inadequate for teaching practice because there was a large gap between the theories that they had learnt and the reality in classroom; (2) conflicts between the need for support and a striving for independence; (3) having gone through developmental stages: initial concern was discipline and classroom management; having overcome these difficulties, teaching strategies and individual pupil differences became the central issue; and (4) a general feeling of isolation which was felt most strongly in moments of need.

Many scholars state that beginning teachers are more likely to experience “reality shock,” in which the reality is found to be different from their idealistic view (Bullough, 1997; Farrel, 2003; Koetsier and Wubbels, 1995; Marso and Pigge, 1987, Veenman, 1984). Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz (1986) have suggested that the feeling of shock may be stronger in teaching compared to other professions because the teacher needs to solve his/her problems promptly, being isolated from other colleagues (p.414). The main findings in their study indicated that school environments such as a support system, school climate, and staff relations had a great impact on the socialisation of the beginning teachers. The study recommended that a more realistic picture of teaching should be conveyed in teacher education to prevent beginning teachers from having “reality shock” in which teachers tend to “be preoccupied with management problems to apply theory to practice” (Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986, p.421). These ideas, especially “reality” compared with “idealistic views,” are helpful when considering the experience of my participants.

In another study on experiences of beginning teachers, Farrell (2003) conducted a case study that focused on the experience of an English language teacher at secondary school in Singapore. Using qualitative methods, he collected data from the sources, such as classroom observations, journal writing, and interviews with participants (that is, the language teacher and the school principal). The results revealed that the teacher had experienced “reality shock” which was firstly related to the size of the workload. He faced some dilemmas because he felt overwhelmed by his extra load (for example, counselling students, organising extracurricular activities), while his senior colleagues said that his workload was much lighter than theirs. Another dilemma that the teacher encountered concerned the exam system in the school in which he was required to write exam papers for levels he was not teaching and to mark those exam papers. The

other dilemma was how to relate to his students with lower proficiency who exhibited discipline problems. While the teacher worked on the problem of disciplining his students, he found that some older teachers made negative remarks about new teachers being enthusiastic about their students. The main dilemma that the teacher faced was lack of communication with his other colleagues due to the limited opportunities for sharing (for example, office, materials). While the teacher received positive support from the principal of the school, he was concerned about forming good professional relationships with his other colleagues.

In this study, Farrell (2003) interpreted his findings by adapting a model presented by Maynard and Furlong (1995) in which novice teachers go through five stages of development: “early idealism,” “survival,” “recognising difficulties,” “hitting the plateau,” and “moving on.” Using this model, he illustrated that although the teacher had gone through stages of development, he found that the teacher moved back and forth between the final three phases. So, having gone through “earlier idealism” (for example, a strong identification with the students) and “survival” (for example, discipline problems), the teacher “recognised some difficulties” in dealing with the class and communicating with his colleagues. The teacher even wondered if he could fit into the culture of the school. Then the teacher “reached a plateau” in which he established his routines at work, and “moved on” to paying more attention to the quality of his students’ learning. Having experienced these phases, the teacher remarked that collegial support was most important during his first year as a teacher. The study recommended an additional support system such as a buddy teacher who could help guide the new teacher. The study also emphasised that teachers need to receive support to survive and to develop as teachers during their first years of teaching.

Bezzina (2006) also identified the need for support for teachers, especially at the start of their teaching career. In his study, in-depth interviews of eighteen teachers were administered following a questionnaire survey conducted among three hundred primary and secondary teachers in Malta during their induction phase (that is, their first three years after graduation). This study identified the three main preferences in relation to the support issue as ‘resources,’ ‘teamwork,’ and ‘an experienced

colleague.’ Other findings showed that teachers believed up-to-date professional development was necessary and that ‘class discipline’ was the top concern.

In a study conducted among beginning teachers who were on their first, second and third years of teaching at primary or lower secondary schools in Japan, San (1999) investigated the perceptions of beginning teachers about their initial preparation and induction into their teaching. The results showed that beginning teachers developed their knowledge, skills and attitudes for teaching very quickly in their early years of service, especially in their first year. The results also revealed that the development pattern becomes steady between the second and third years of teaching.

Lang (1999) explored the experiences of seven primary first year teachers in New Zealand. She examined the process of beginning teaching by particularly focusing on the progress through “survival” to the “consolidation” phase (Katz, 1972) by analysing qualitative data collected from a survey. The survey comprised three questions: (1) when did you start getting easier to teach?; (2) what things have helped you survive?; and (3) what things can you identify that you would have liked to have had included in your pre-service teacher education programme, that would have helped you survive? (pp.4–5). The findings showed that it became easier to work for most of the teachers in the second half of the school year and that the teachers had had to survive a range of difficulties. These difficulties included ‘being attacked by a child,’ ‘the feeling that everything needed to be done in a day,’ and ‘the long hours of work.’ The findings also showed the factors that the teachers identified to have helped them survive in teaching. These factors included, for example, team teaching, working in a syndicate, support from a tutor teacher as well as a mentor from outside the school, and effective planning. Beginning teachers found it helpful to plan their teaching as part of a group of teachers and to receive advice and guidelines from their tutor teacher. They also found it effective to keep up-to-date with planning, marking and administrative tasks (p.5). Most of the teachers identified the things that they would have liked to have had included in their pre-service teacher education programme. These were concerned with practical teaching experience, overall curriculum ideas, and ideas for how classes can be set up effectively. Lang (1999) notes that some aspects of teaching such as ideas for curriculum and which topics to teach in which order are “idiosyncratic to individual schools’ long term plans, to

individual classrooms, and to individual children or groups of children” (p.11). She therefore suggests that programmes for teacher training in New Zealand should be designed according to learning needs identified at the time.

Similarly, in the New Zealand study on the experiences of beginning teachers, Cameron, Barker, and Lovett (2006) identified effective strategies that had helped secondary and primary teachers during their first two years of teaching. These included having wider networking opportunities, receiving feedback on their teaching, observing other teachers, having a mentor, and being part of an effective working team.

In a more recent study, Liu and Fisher (2006) explored the development patterns of three modern foreign language student teachers’ conceptions of self during a nine-month Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course in England. The conceptions were explored through semi-structured interview, log, open-ended questionnaire and end-of course self-reflection report in relation to classroom performance, relationship with pupils, self-image in pupils’ eyes and teacher identity. The study identified positive change over the course, although some differences in pattern were observed. It was concluded that academic, institutional and curriculum factors (for example, school environment and atmosphere, course content and structure) and cognitive, affective and social factors (for example, relationship with mentor and other staff, the support from family and friends) were the main reasons that contributed to their change and professional growth.

Bullough, Knowles and Crow (1992) illustrated six novice teachers’ experiences within the contexts of teaching, and examined the process of their development in teaching. They elaborated the case of each teacher through analysis of individual background, initial teaching metaphors, and problems or conflicts in relationships with students and colleagues. In each case study, they identified the problems of teachers such as betrayal by students, coping and maintaining self-esteem, work pressures, facing dilemmas, and increasing stress. This research provided useful data on experiences of beginning teachers to better understand the process of teacher induction and development. It was concluded that it is important for student teachers

to receive initial teaching education in the problems of beginning teachers (for example, negotiating a teaching role) in order to enhance the quality of teachers.

The studies above focused mainly on the process of learning to teach where beginning teachers faced difficulties in teaching. The findings of these studies are useful for comparison with participants in my thesis. The following section reviews literature on strategies for effective teaching and classroom management.

(ii) Strategies for Effective Teaching and Classroom Management

In *The Professional Practice of Teaching* (McGee and Fraser, 1994; 2001; 2008), the fundamental learning theories and practical strategies for teaching in the context of the New Zealand classroom are explored. The aim of the editors is to help teachers improve their teaching practice. Authors focus on numerous aspects of teaching in the New Zealand education system, including the national school curriculum (McGee, 1994; 2001; 2008), planning for effective teaching and learning (McGee and Taylor, 1994; 2001; 2008), managing an effective classroom (Vaughan and Weeds, 1994), and culturally diverse classrooms and communities (Whyte, 2001; 2008).

McGee and Taylor (1994; 2001; 2008) state that planning for effective learning is a major part of the teacher's role and it helps teachers put the curriculum into action. Planning is necessary for teachers to organise and arrange goals, aims and objectives,¹¹ while it is noted that "individual biases, interests and enthusiasms will influence decisions about the nature of the plan" (Ibid., 1994, p.85). In the classroom, McGee and Taylor assert that teachers should set the learning objectives, such as an overview of the topics and themes to be taught throughout the academic year, and a unit plan which covers the class content including the activities and resources to be chosen. Lesson planning is recommended especially for student teachers to organise and arrange individual lessons. Lesson planning requires writing the details of each lesson, such as topics, lesson duration, purposes/outcomes, resources, lesson moves and sequence, learning activities, and evaluation. It enables beginner teachers to

¹¹ McGee and Taylor (1994) discuss the definitions of the terms, "goals," "aims" and "objectives" in curriculum planning. They refer to, for instance, Brady's (1987) definitions that "a goal is a broad and general statement of society's intention for the school as an institution, that an aim is a general statement of intent for each curriculum area, and that an objective is a more specific statement about learning in particular units and lessons" (p.87).

develop professional teaching skills through reflecting on the effectiveness of each lesson. While beginning teachers need to make detailed written lesson plans, experienced teachers make their lesson plans with a variety of planning formats as they become familiar with the expectations in the classroom. The use of strategies described in this literature aligns with the techniques used by graduates of New Zealand teacher training programmes. As a number of my participants hold New Zealand teaching qualifications, this literature informs the findings associated with their teaching strategies.

Vaughan and Weeds (1994) outlined effective management strategies in the classroom, including techniques for organising learners, developing learning centres, promoting learner self-management, and organising teachers in the form of team teaching.¹² They especially emphasise the importance of understanding the individual differences of learners, such as interests/attitudes, expectations, adjustment to change, academic achievement, values and cultural differences to develop structures and routines in order to run an effective classroom. To promote learner self-management, the teacher needs to consider the individual characteristics of learners and spend time developing the personal relationships with them. It is also important to set up a positive learning environment through establishing clearly defined, collaborative classroom rules and the teacher being consistent in the classroom by “acting as a quality role model” (p.165) for learners. Team teaching is a form of teaching style in which teachers in charge support each other and “capitalise on each other’s strengths” (p.133), while considering individual teaching styles, skills, abilities, and leadership qualities. Communication becomes the key to effectiveness in team teaching to create a supportive teaching environment.

Richards and Farrell (2005) discuss the benefits of team teaching for language teachers. They defined team teaching as “a process in which two or more teachers share the responsibility for planning the class or course, for teaching it, and for any follow-up work associated with the class such as evaluation” (p.159). They suggest that team teaching has a number of benefits. These include the fact that team teaching

¹² Warwick (1971) defines, “team teaching is a form of organisation in which individual teachers decide to pool resources, interests, and expertise in order to devise and implement a scheme of work suitable to the needs of their pupils and the facilities of their school” (p.18).

promotes collegiality among teachers and provides teacher-development opportunities; assigns teachers with different roles; allows teachers to recognise the advantages inherent in alternative methods and techniques of teaching and evaluating lessons from the other teacher(s); and helps learners experience two or more different styles of teaching and individual interaction with a teacher. To ensure successful team teaching, the teachers are required to have a strong sense of confidence in each other and to meet regularly to discuss any problem. The benefits or limitations of team teaching are pertinent to my research as a number of my participant teachers were expected to team teach.

In her recent work, Hardin (2008) summarised the findings in classroom-management research conducted during the last fifty years. These findings include: “effective classroom management starts with careful planning for the school year and each school day,” “better managers provide instruction in classroom rules and procedures as part of the curriculum,” “effective classroom management enables teachers to spend more time on instruction, resulting in greater academic gains for students,” and “effective managers begin by identifying the goals of instruction and then considering the student behaviours needed to achieve these goals” (pp.11–12).

Hardin (2008) reviewed a behavioural approach to classroom management, including “behavioural techniques” (for example, reinforcement, shaping) and “behaviour modification” (that is, programmes developed for individual students) (p.23). As Hardin explains, this approach is based on the work of Thorndike (1874–1949) and other researchers. Thorndike (as cited in Hardin, 2008) developed the concept of the “Law of Effect,” which states that “a rewarded behavior will be repeated, and an unrewarded behavior will cease” (p.23). One type of reinforcer called “social reinforcers” includes compliments, praise, facial expressions, physical contact, and attention (p.34), which help increase desired behaviours. Shaping is the strategy used “to teach new behaviors and skills with continuous reinforcement and refers to the reinforcement of successive approximations of a terminal behavior” (p.35). For example, when a child was learning the alphabet, teachers would not wait until the child learned the entire alphabet, but reinforce the child who learned the first few letters. Behaviour modification, also known as “applied behavior analysis” refers to “a systematic approach to changing behaviors in positive ways through the

application of behavioral principles” (p.36). To utilise this strategy, the teacher needs to identify whether the target behaviour can be changed and that the behaviour-change goal and the reward are acceptable for both the student and the teacher. The behavioural approach therefore explains that all behaviours are learned and maintained by reinforcement. Hardin concludes that systematic application of reinforcement is thus effective in classroom behavioural management.

Hardin (2008) also examined whether the personality of the teacher has an effect on classroom management. She states that the congruence between the personality of the teacher and the teacher’s action creates a successful classroom, and therefore it is important for teachers to find the management technique that fits their personality. Furthermore, she suggests that the teacher needs to clearly define his/her expectations and all components of the plan, including rules, consequences, and procedures, so that students can understand and deal effectively with the teaching style and management style that the individual teachers adopt in the classroom.

Cangelosi (2000) asserts that students are more likely to be engaged in learning activities in the classroom where a businesslike atmosphere exists. He suggests five steps toward creating a businesslike atmosphere in which “achieving specified learning goals takes priority over other concerns” (p.85). These steps include (1) taking advantage of the beginning of a new year to begin establishing cooperative behavioural patterns between the teacher and students; (2) planning and demonstratively organising the classroom; (3) minimising transition time and keeping students busy; (4) using a communication style that creates a learning environment where students are free from threats such as embarrassment and harassment; and (5) clearly define expectations for conduct.

A number of researchers suggest that the strategies for effective teaching involve motivating students to learn (Burden, 2000; Cangelosi, 2000; Good and Brophy, 2008; McNamara, 1999). They emphasise the importance of understanding different types of motivations in learning in order to utilise strategies for motivating students. Students become intrinsically motivated to engage in a learning activity when they recognise that experiencing the activity is directly beneficial and valuable. On the other hand, students become extrinsically motivated to engage in a learning activity

when they desire to receive rewards not directly related to the learning activity. Good and Brophy (2008) suggest that the teacher needs to focus on adopting strategies for capitalising on students' intrinsic motivation, while using strategies for supplying extrinsic motivation. It is therefore especially important for the teacher to develop ideas for designing learning activities in which students become intrinsically motivated to engage in learning activities (Cangelosi, 2000).

In his study, Burden (2000) focuses on the use of motivation in the classroom that enables teachers to increase the positive learning outcomes and decrease classroom management problems. He emphasises that it is important to recognise the merits and limitations of utilising intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Teachers need to avoid giving extrinsic rewards but make learning activities intrinsically interesting, because the excessive use of extrinsic rewards may undermine intrinsic motivation. However, they may give rewards when students find learning activities less intrinsically interesting and satisfying. Burden asserts that it is necessary to recognise implications of the theoretical views of motivation in order to determine specific strategies for motivating students in connection with the curriculum content and instructions. Thus, he examines the factors which influence motivation in light of the theoretical views of motivation: the behavioural view, the cognitive view, the humanistic view, and the achievement view. The behavioural view postulates that individuals are motivated to complete a task when their behaviour is reinforced by receiving extrinsic or intrinsic rewards. The cognitive view suggests that individuals are motivated when they experience a "cognitive disequilibrium" (p.5) in which they realise that they need to know more about a particular subject to find a solution to a problem. This view relates to intrinsic motivation by which students directly value learning activities; however, it is difficult to stimulate cognitive disequilibrium in all students. The humanistic view suggests that individuals are motivated by needs of growth and development of self. One theory in this category is Abraham Maslow's (as cited in Burden, 2000, p.6) hierarchy of needs. His theory hypothesises a hierarchy of five needs: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualisation, in which deficiency needs must be met before growth needs become satisfied. This view also relates to intrinsic motivation and Burden recommends that the teacher should understand the most significant needs of students in order to adjust the curriculum to meet their needs and interests.

Many researchers also suggest that it is important to develop positive student–teacher relationships for effective classroom management (Charles, 2008; Henley, 2006; Walberg and Greenburg, 1997). Henley (2006) suggests that teachers need to understand students’ needs with consideration of ethnic, religious and cultural differences in order to develop a nurturing learning environment. He emphasises the need for teachers to work on classroom management through, for example, “establishing trust,” “knowing their students,” “understanding developmental needs,” “avoiding stereotypes,” and “dealing with cultural diversity” (p.88). The techniques to overcome management problems to deal with students of different cultural backgrounds include: “first, teachers must recognize cultural differences; second, they must create a culturally responsive classroom; and third, they must understand and be sensitive to students’ beliefs and value systems” (p.104). Henley outlined the guidelines for establishing a culturally responsive classroom. In a culturally responsive classroom each student feels that his/her culture is valued through the teacher recognising each student’s ethnocentric biases, learning how students’ cultural backgrounds influence how they learn, identifying cultural heritage details from students’ lives, and determining what disciplinary and classroom management practices are equitable for all students.

Henley’s work is pertinent to the present research. While his guidelines for a culturally responsive classroom serve to teach students with different backgrounds in the American society with diverse cultures, they are useful for understanding my participant Japanese native speaker teachers who deal with students in New Zealand.

Charles (2008) addresses the roles of human relationships and communications in managing an effective classroom. He suggests that it is important to enhance personal relations through adopting skills in human relations, giving students personal attention, and discussing students’ opinions about the class. Fundamental skills in human relations include: making a good impression by introducing oneself; opening up communications through commenting, questioning in conversations; conferring dignity on others through listening to them or acknowledging their contributions; encouraging others to cooperate with you; and showing yourself to be a trustworthy person. He emphasises the importance of enhancing communication by which teachers encourage and help students in a positive manner through, for example,

“empathetic listening” (Covey, 1989) and avoiding “roadblocks” to communications (Gordon, 1989). He also suggests the techniques for avoiding arguing with students which included: taking turns listening carefully to the other person; dropping your defences but trying to understand; avoiding telling the other person he/she is wrong; and listening to the other person to say that you understand but stating your position to say that you want to find a middle ground that makes sense to both sides (Charles, 2008, p.139).

This section described classroom management theories in which many researchers proposed strategies for effective teaching and classroom management. It is useful for informing my interpretation of the strategies used by participants in the present research. The following section explores the research on teachers’ effective classroom management.

(iii) Studies on Classroom Management

In the process of teacher development, classroom management has been perceived as one of the most challenging areas in teaching (Bezzina, 2006; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986). A large number of studies has identified the factors influencing classroom management such as teachers’ sense of efficacy (Lang, 1999; Woolfolk, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990), teacher characteristics and teaching styles (Hardin, 2008; Opdenakker and Damme, 2006), and teacher’s certification sources and experience levels (Ritter and Hancock, 2007). Other research has focused on students’ perspectives of classroom management (Cothran, Kulinna, and Garrahy, 2003; Lewis, 2001; Lewis, Romi, Qui, and Katz, 2005).

Wragg (1985) conducted a Teacher Education Project that involved observing over one thousand lessons given by novice and experienced teachers in secondary schools in England. He also interviewed the teachers who had delivered those lessons. The lessons involved mixed ability classes mainly in Science, English, Maths, and Languages. Drawing from the main findings in this project, Wragg proposed practical theories in effective classroom management. He emphasised the importance of teachers establishing good personal relationships with students; making effective preparation for each lesson; and having specific pedagogic skills such as skilful questioning and explaining, and making appropriate responses. He also suggested that

the teacher needs to have the ability to manifest one's self as well as some aspects of personality effectively in his/her teaching. Furthermore, Wragg (2004) emphasised the importance of consistent implementation of rules and the adequate use of rewards and punishment. He elaborated how rules can be introduced in order to direct self-discipline with which students can learn sharing responsibilities. He also elaborated how personal relationships between teacher and students can be shaped in many locations such as academic, managerial, social and individual contexts. He then illustrated that a positive relationship could achieve the constructive effect on students' achievement.

One study confirmed that the teacher's belief has a positive effect on student learning and is related to the teacher's classroom management approaches (Woolfork, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990). In this study, the relationships among the teacher's sense of efficacy, the teacher's orientations in pupil control ideology, and student motivation were examined. Participants were fifty-five language teachers in forty Hebrew supplementary religious schools who completed four questionnaires regarding teacher efficacy, pupil control ideology, problems in school, and teacher perception of student motivation. A scale was used to measure personal teaching efficacy (for example, the teacher's sense of his/her ability to help students succeed in learning and to deal with problem behaviour) and general teaching efficacy (for example, teacher's sense of the power of teaching in relation to problem behaviour). Pupil control ideology was assessed to determine teacher's orientation toward pupil control. A high score indicated a more custodial orientation. An inventory including typical school problems and four possible solutions was used to assess teacher's orientation in problem solving (for example, controlling, autonomous). The inventory of teacher perception of student motivation was used to measure teachers' beliefs about the use of rewards and teachers' perceptions of students' satisfaction.

The results showed that the more efficacious the teacher, the less custodial the pupil control ideology. In other words, the greater the teacher's sense of efficacy, the more humanistic the teacher's pupil control orientation. The results also showed that the more optimistic the teacher, the less custodial and the more encouraging of student autonomy in solving classroom problems. Pupil control ideology was related to belief about the need for extrinsic reward. The more custodial the teacher, the more he/she

saw rewards as necessary to motivate students. The study further explored the relationships between years of experience and teacher's orientations in problem solving with reference to the nature of religious schools. The results revealed that the longer the teachers had taught in public schools, the more they rated control strategies as appropriate (for example, using rewards and sanctions, encouraging guilt and competition). Also, the longer teachers taught in religious schools, the more they favoured autonomous strategies in solving problems approaches (Woolfork, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990).

In her study on the experiences of primary beginning teachers in New Zealand, Lang (1999) identified the teacher's own self concept and feelings of "self-efficacy" (Bandura, 1995) as important factors that helped beginning teachers survive during their initial year of teaching. The findings revealed that teachers identified important factors in their survival, and these included: 'having a belief in oneself' and 'being not too critical of oneself.'

Opdenakker and Damme (2006) investigated the effects of teacher characteristics (for example, gender, classroom management skills, job satisfaction) and teaching styles on classroom practices in mathematics in secondary education. Participants were seventy-eight mathematics teachers at forty-seven schools in Belgium who completed surveys during two consecutive school years. The main findings revealed that a learner-centred teaching style and good classroom management skills had great impact on effective classroom practices. The results also revealed that teachers with a high level of job satisfaction gave more instructional support to their students including those with low-ability, compared to the teachers with a low level of job satisfaction.

In a more recent study, Ritter and Hancock (2007) investigated the effects of teacher's certification sources and experience levels on classroom activities (for example, learning, social interactions, student behaviour) in relation to classroom management orientations of teachers. They used a theoretical model that categorised classroom management strategies into three orientations: interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionist (Glickman and Tamashiro, 1980; Wolfgang and Glickman, 1980) to determine teacher's orientation. Interventionists believe that teachers should maintain

control over classroom activities through reinforcement such as rewards and punishments for students to learn appropriate behaviours. Non-interventionists believe in the inner rationality of the students and suggest that teachers should be less involved in adjusting student behaviours. Interactionalists believe that both students and teachers should be involved in classroom activities because students learn appropriate behaviours as a result of coming into contact with the needs of others through reciprocal relationships.

Participants were experienced (at least five years of teaching) and novice (less than two years of teaching) teachers with either traditional certification or alternative certification. Traditional certification represented a four-year baccalaureate degree with an accredited college/university education programme, whereas alternative certification was characterised by a baccalaureate degree that included a teacher certification and being employed by a school system. This meant that traditionally certified teachers had strong content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content-specific knowledge, while alternatively certified teachers who had taken fewer education courses had content knowledge in their subject areas, but less pedagogical knowledge and content-specific knowledge (Ritter and Hancock, 2007). The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory was used to measure the orientations of a teacher's instructional management, people management, and behavioural management.

The results revealed that neither teacher's certification sources nor experience level by itself was related to his/her classroom management orientation. On the other hand, the results indicated that those traditionally certified teachers with several years of teaching experience were significantly less inclined to exert control over classroom activities and student behaviours than were those with other educational and experiential backgrounds. In other words, traditionally certified teachers were more likely to have adjusted their classroom management orientations toward non-intervention after years of teaching experience. It appeared that traditionally certified teachers initially believed that it was necessary to use what they had learnt in traditional educational programmes but they became able to apply the concepts appropriately only after several years of teaching. The results implied that the knowledge acquired at traditional educational programmes combined with years of

teaching experience enabled teachers to reflect upon the best practices in classroom management. It was suggested that educators at traditional educational programmes may prefer to enhance their teaching experiences, whereas educators at alternative certification programmes may be better at introducing more of the curricula and pedagogical aspects (Ritter and Hancock, 2007).

Most of the studies of classroom management focus on the teacher and do not include students' perspectives of management behaviours of teachers. Cothran, Kulinna, and Garrahy (2003) therefore examined student behaviour and teacher practices from the students' perspective. They interviewed 182 physical education students during class at fourteen different schools. Topics in the interviews included descriptions of student behaviour, classes in which students behaved/misbehaved, and perceived effectiveness of the teacher's management strategies. The results revealed that students provided similar reports on these topics. Students reported that effective teachers set early, clear expectations and consequences, and enhance a consistent standard in their management system. Some students remarked that teachers need to be consistent because students do not listen to a teacher who changes the rules depending on his/her mood, or who makes false threats using the word "next time." Students provided two main theories: (1) teachers should not be concerned about being disliked by their students because of being strict; and (2) teachers should have the knowledge or confidence to manage a class. Students also pointed out that teachers should not be too strict because this might provoke students to act up and make fun and to be disruptive in classroom. It is assumed that students may use misbehaviour as a means of breaking up the monotony of the school day, or to sabotage the routines demanded by school. Effective teachers therefore "plan for students' fun within the context of their courses" (Cothran, Kulinna, and Garrahy, 2003, p.439).

In this study (Cothran et al., 2003), students also reported that effective teachers develop positive relationships with students by caring about them, which in turn enables teachers gain trust and respect from their students. They suggested that teachers need to exhibit caring by communicating, open up by getting to know their students, and try to understand students' needs. They also believed that teachers could earn respect by demonstrating respect to their students. On the other hand, those

teachers who lose control of their emotions such as yelling gave the impression to students that they were giving up some of the authority and respect. In all these topics, the report was consistent despite the school differences. With reference to the students' perspectives, the results indicated that efficient teachers are strict but "partially rely on building positive relationships with students" (Ibid., 2003, p.438) by finding a way to balance control and fun.

The results found in the above study (Cothran et al., 2003) were consistent with some of the findings of previous research (Lewis, 2001). Lewis conducted a survey among primary and secondary students to examine the role of classroom discipline. The survey was to assess teachers' discipline strategies, and to measure student responsibility for classroom behaviours and student feelings towards a teacher's discipline techniques.

The main findings revealed that students felt more distracted from their work when teachers lost control of their emotions such as yelling and that teacher's aggression was associated with the level of misbehaviour in class. Other findings revealed that more responsible students are in classes when teachers involve students in the decision-making, teachers recognise good behaviour, and teachers discuss the problem with misbehaving students. The study indicated that "teachers' use of rewards and recognition, discussions, involvement, and non-directive hints promoted greater levels of student responsibility" (p.315). The study suggested that it is important for teachers to have collegial support in order to maintain their emotional well-being. The approaches recommended included responding by calmly punishing misbehaviour rather than by using coercive discipline techniques, combined with strategies that promote student responsibility.

In this thesis, it is expected that classroom management would be one of the most important issues for my participants. The above studies provide suggestions for classroom management strategies that my participant teachers may or may not adopt in the New Zealand context. The findings of Lang's (1999) study are useful to my study as they provide the New Zealand context in which I expect my participant teachers to work. My participant teachers will have similar cultural/environmental conditions to those of Lang's participants. Many of my participants were career

changers and immigrants from Japan; therefore, they may experience difficulties or unexpected incidents in the classroom because they have different cultural values from those of their students.

The above literature review has illustrated that in studies of teacher development, researchers often investigate the process of becoming a teacher and explore the experiences of beginning teachers. Teachers are involved in various complex situations at school in the relationships with their students and colleagues. Some researchers therefore utilise metaphor to analyse the complexity of teachers' experiences because metaphor represents a simplification (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995; Bullough, Knowles, and Crow, 1992). They emphasise that the metaphor is useful to express embodied experiences in teaching. The following section focuses on the metaphor as a way of exploring the reality of teaching and teachers themselves.

d) Metaphor to Describe Teachers' Experiences

Drawing on the work of Dewey (1938) who conceptualised the notion of experience in education, more studies of experience in teaching have been conducted in the area of teacher development and school organisation. Dewey asserted that, "development of experience comes about through interaction from the point of view that education is essentially a social process" (p.58). He emphasised the importance of considering experience in a school context to improve the traditional school system.

The pragmatist philosophers such as Dewey (1859–1952), Mead (1863–1931), and Blumer (1900–1987) are associated with symbolic interactionism. This perspective posits that people's selves are constructed by meanings and language (symbols) through interaction, and that human experience is mediated by interpretation (Blumer, 1969). Hargreaves (1995a) argues that symbolic interactionism helps understand teachers' selves, their meanings and purposes. He states,

In symbolic interactionism, teaching is more than a set of technically learnable skills: it is given meaning by teachers' evolving selves, within the realistic contexts and contingencies of their work environments. ... It helps us see how less-than-perfect teacher actions are, in fact, rational, strategic responses to everyday, yet often overwhelming, constraints in teachers' workplaces (p.11).

Hargreaves suggests that the practice and research of teacher development should integrate key dimensions of teaching that include technical competence, moral purpose, political strategies and emotional development. He notes that symbolic interactionism helps identify the differences among teachers in age, career stage, gender, and race that construct the imperfection and complexity of the process of teaching and teacher development. In practical situations, it becomes a useful approach towards understanding teachers' lives in the immediate settings of social interactions such as schools, classrooms, staffrooms and communities.

In recent studies, teachers' lives have been widely explored with the assumption that their experiences reflect on their teaching and influence relationships with students (Levin, 2001; Smith, 2001). Qualitative methods such as participant observations, interviews and auto/biographical approaches are employed to delve into teachers' beliefs and their life stories. Other tools for reflection used extensively in the research include journal writing, keeping diaries or logs, storytelling and letter writing. By examining individual experiences through such discourses, studies of educational experience have demonstrated that a variety of factors in personal experiences affect teachers and their work (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995).

A number of studies of teachers' experiences have employed the use of metaphor as a way of exploring teaching and teachers' selves (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995; Bullough and Stokes, 1994; Connelly and Clandinin, 1988; Hardcastle, Yamamoto, Parkay, and Chan, 1985; Martínez, Saulea, and Huber, 2001). Connelly and Clandinin (1988) found that notion of metaphor articulated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) was particularly useful for understanding teachers' actions and practices. Lakoff and Johnson argue that the concepts that govern our thoughts are mainly metaphorical in nature. They state that,

Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. ... If we are right in suggesting that our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor (p.3).

Connelly and Clandinin (1988) conceptualised the metaphor within teachers' experiences with the belief that the metaphor emerges from teachers' prior experiences and directs their practices into the future (p.72). They use the metaphor of "professional knowledge landscape" for a teacher's development of narratives to make sense of his/her teaching (Connelly and Clandinin, 1999). Bullough and Gitlin (1995) argue that one of the challenges faced by novice teachers involves "negotiating a role within new and unfamiliar contexts" (p.49). They also emphasise the role of metaphor to explore the process of becoming a teacher. They noted that,

Through analysis[,] light is shed not only on self but also on the context, which enables identification of the ways in which context constrains one's realization of ideals, In this way, alternative visions of teaching, ways of being with young people, can be identified and explored (p.51).

Bullough and Gitlin suggest that beginning teachers need to be aware of the process of negotiation of a role and that they must be not only students of teaching but also students of their own development. In this respect, they are required to have "knowledge of self and of context and knowledge gathered in systematic and ongoing ways about the interaction of self and context" (p.50) in order to understand the complex and contradictory process of role negotiation. For instance, Bullough and Gitlin explain that in the community's eyes beginning secondary teachers are powerful and institutionally accepted experts; on the other hand, they do "telling" in the classroom and have not yet become established as teachers in their new environment. To fit into many secondary faculties, beginning teachers face complex procedures in different contexts. Because of the nature of metaphor, which represents a simplification, the metaphor becomes a useful means of expressing embodied experiences in teaching and living. Bullough and Gitlin (1995) therefore suggest the use of metaphor to enable the teacher to construct meaningful knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning by identifying his/her beliefs.

Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) employed the use of metaphor as a means of exploring the process of learning to become a teacher. They make use of metaphors that help student teachers develop their own skills in practical teaching contexts. In their studies of novice teachers, they asked teachers to construct initial teaching metaphors of themselves to reflect upon their teaching. One case revealed that, for

instance, the teacher provided two metaphors: ‘the teacher is haven-maker’ and ‘the teacher is rescuer.’ She sought a place of security in the classroom for her students and herself. However, she found that for her to feel secure, the classroom had to be highly structured. She therefore negotiated her role as a teacher in relation to the classroom context and decided to adopt a highly structured curriculum. In this way, the use of metaphor enabled teachers to envision teaching in the contexts involved and initiate their planning.

Ben-Peretz, Mendelson, and Kron (2003) focus on the relationship between the context of teachers’ work and their views of themselves as professionals. They conducted a series of interviews among sixty teachers in Israeli vocational senior high schools. In interviews, each participant was asked to choose one of seven drawings of selected occupations (shopkeeper, judge, animal keeper in a zoo, entertainer, conductor of an orchestra, puppeteer, and animal trainer) that reflected to the highest degree his or her self-image as a teacher and to explain this choice. The participants were also asked to suggest an occupation which was not included in the set of drawings and to comment on their choice. The major finding was that teachers’ images of their professional selves were significantly related to the teaching context. For instance, the caring metaphor was found to be more prevalent among teachers of low-achieving students, whereas ‘conductor’ was more frequently chosen by teachers of high-achieving students. In this study, participants disclosed some of their beliefs, attitudes, and feelings towards their teaching situations. It was concluded that “the use of metaphors raised teachers’ awareness of their roles and functions in school” (p.286). It was also suggested that metaphoric pictures could serve as a meaningful research instrument and an instructional tool in teacher education programmes.

Other researchers adopted the use of metaphor for teachers to reflect upon their teaching and to facilitate growth of their knowledge. In four case studies on metaphor development by secondary teachers enrolled in graduate teacher education, for instance, Stofflett (1996) found that common themes were the context of the school and the teachers’ histories as learners and educators. While teachers with less experience developed metaphors relating to their own positive life histories as learners, the more experienced teachers linked their metaphors less to their learning histories but more to their experiences in school. For example, two teachers described

themselves as “a chameleon”—one teacher to characterise her flexibility within the classroom, and another to describe the adaptation required to the changing school curriculum—that was constructed through their experience in teaching. Stofflett also found that the metaphors teachers developed in these studies were not strongly associated with subject matter, but rather more closely with the teacher’s views of teaching and learning. This result was attributed to the fact that the course was multi-disciplinary. He noted that although most of the teachers struggled with the task of developing their metaphors, they found the process rewarding. As a result, the process of developing metaphors provided the opportunity to “examine personal histories and reframe conceptualizations of teaching practice” (p.587).

In another study, Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber (2001) analysed the metaphorical conceptions of learning based on the reflections of fifty experienced teachers, and thirty-eight prospective teachers with no practical teaching experience. The metaphors were formulated by collaboration in eleven groups, each with four to six members. In their analysis, the metaphors described by teachers were divided into three categories: behaviourist, constructivist, and situative/socio-historic. These three categories are derived from the work of Greeno, Collins, and Resnick (1996) on issues of educational practice in which the principles are set on the basis of the above three theoretical perspectives.

The behaviourist view postulates that learning occurs most effectively if learning activities are organised to optimise acquisition of information and routine skill, provided that clear goals, feedback, and reinforcement are made. Behaviourist metaphors, therefore, refer to teachers as transmitters of information, and the learners as passive recipients. The constructivist view focuses on interactive learning environments that foster students’ construction of understanding of concepts and principles through reasoning activities. Constructivist metaphors, thus, would define learning as individual construction of knowledge, and refer to the teacher as a facilitator and the learner as an active agent in the learning process. In the situative/socio-historic view, environments are organised for students’ participation in social practices of inquiry and learning in order to support the development of their personal identities. The situative/socio-historic metaphors, for example, indicate that

learning is a joint process between students and people involved in learning in which they collaborate to achieve a result beneficial to all of them.

The results of this study (Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber, 2001) showed that the majority of metaphors that experienced teachers had formulated were behaviourist, followed by a smaller group of experienced teachers expressing constructivist metaphors. Only a minority of experienced teachers produced situative/socio-historic metaphors. The results also showed, on the other hand, that the prospective teachers had used more constructivist and situative/socio-historic metaphors than did experienced teachers. One of the behavioural metaphors was, for instance, 'learning is like writing into a new notebook with a magic pencil that never wears out,' whereas an example of constructivist metaphors was 'learning is a detective who looks for things and into things.' Only a few situative/socio-historic perspectives in metaphors were found. The results suggested that the reasons for difference in the two groups might be found in the learning context (for example, different courses that each group had taken) and group dynamics (for example, richer/lack of teaching experiences). Teacher training courses, for instance, elaborate explicit knowledge, while practical teaching experiences give teachers implicit knowledge. The implication was that the metaphorical base of thinking about teaching and learning revealed in this study would help teachers understand the difference between their implicit and explicit knowledge.

A recent study was also conducted with reference to the categorisation of metaphors. In this study, Leavy, McSorley, and Boté (2007) examined how metaphorical representations of preservice teachers changed and the factors influencing the development of beliefs and the modification of metaphors. It was revealed that behaviourist notions of teaching and learning were predominant at the beginning of the study while constructivist views increased considerably as the study proceeded. It argues that beginning teachers tend to focus more on themselves as teachers with myriad of methodologies, concepts and apprehensions; therefore, the role of novice teachers is more predominant in the behaviourist views. The main factors that influenced the modification of metaphors included the context that provided constructivist principles in methodology courses and in curriculum frameworks.

Metaphor has been used not only as a means of exploring a teacher's identity for negotiating his/her role as a teacher but also as a means of reflecting upon teaching experiences to facilitate knowledge growth. The implication is that what Japanese native speaker teachers describe about teaching and themselves using metaphoric expressions may help indicate what it means to them to teach and be teachers. Further, using the three categories: behaviourist view, constructivist view, and the situative/socio-historic view, to interpret their metaphors may help me understand their ways of organising classes, planning for their teaching, and their orientations to some aspects of their teaching.

5. Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature from the perspective that my study—the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers teaching Japanese in New Zealand—would involve four main research areas: career development, immigration and employment, Japanese cultural values, and teacher development. The literature therefore comprises theories and approaches in career development, acculturation process in relation to immigration, and teacher development. Japanese culture has been introduced to help readers understand the background of the participants in the present research.

The first section explained relevant theories of career development, which included trait-factor theory, theories on career social learning, theory on life stages, planned happenstance theory, career decision-making approaches (for example, lifecareer process theory, integrative life planning theory), and systems theory. These theories suggest that career attainment involves a variety of personal and social factors that influence job search methods and processes. Other research demonstrated that the contextual factors (for example, supports and barriers) played an important role in the career selection process (e.g., Lent et al., 2002).

The section on immigration and employment reviewed the literature on the settlement process of immigrants, and job selection bias and barriers to employment in New Zealand. The literature suggests that the degree of adaptation and adjustment of migrants is significantly related to outcomes of migration such as mental health (e.g.,

Abbott et al., 1999). On the other hand, the findings of previous studies revealed that job selection bias had affected immigrants, success of finding employment in New Zealand (e.g., Coates and Carr, 2005). In this section, the social background of Japanese immigrant teachers in New Zealand was also explained in relation to the changing economic situation in Japan.

In the section on Japanese cultural values, the key characteristics of Japanese culture and society were introduced for the purpose of understanding the background of the participant teachers in the present research. Japanese people live in a collectivist society where people hold a strong hierarchical status orientation (Marsella, 1993). Cultural preferences for Japanese people were also examined with reference to the notion of “culture of shame” (Benedict, 1946). Previous research studies suggest that Japanese people living in a foreign context also maintain their cultural values and that these influence their behaviours in contexts including family, society, and organisations (e.g., Ching et al., 1995; Abrams et al., 1998).

The last section dealt with the different aspects of teacher development. It focused on studies of motivation for choosing to teach, the process of becoming a teacher, and effective teaching strategies for classroom management. It examined three main theoretical approaches in teacher development: knowledge- and skills-based approach, humanistic approach, and contextual approach. This section also emphasised the importance of understating the notion of experience that reflects on teaching and the relationships with others in a school context (Dewey, 1938). Previous research demonstrated that the metaphor was a useful means of exploring these teaching experiences in teacher development (e.g., Bullough and Gitlin, 1995).

CHAPTER THREE:

METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

This chapter presents the methodology and methods adopted for the present research. The methodology explains the overview of the qualitative research, the rationale for qualitative methods for this research, qualitative methods of inquiry, data analysis and strategies. The method outlines the backgrounds of the participants, the research tools employed for this research, and the research realities that I have encountered during my data collection. It also explains ethics approval that I gained prior to the survey.

1. Methodology

This section describes the key characteristics of qualitative research that are relevant to research where the focus is understanding people. The procedures involved in the data collection, analysis and the rationale for using qualitative methods for this research are also presented.

a) Qualitative Research Overview

Qualitative research is a major approach for researching human behaviour, which gained particular recognition in the Chicago School of Sociology during the 1970s (Becker, 1996). Since then, other disciplines including education, social work, and psychology have adopted this research approach. Qualitative research involves an in-depth understanding of the reasons governing why and how people make choices about their actions.

Qualitative researchers conduct their research by employing several fundamental principles to discover how people make meaning of a situation or phenomenon (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). These principles underpin different methods and strategies used to gain a sense of interpretations building up from the data. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), qualitative research has no theory or paradigm that is distinctly its own and therefore researchers draw upon and utilise the approaches, practices, and techniques

from across many separate disciplines (p.6). These approaches are, for instance, case studies, ethnography, and narrative analysis.¹³

In his recent work on five qualitative approaches (that is, narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study), Creswell (2007) presents nine major characteristics of qualitative research. These include the natural setting, the researcher as key instrument, multiple sources of data, inductive data analysis, participants' meanings, emergent design, theoretical lens, interpretive inquiry, and holistic account. Other researchers also contribute by elaborating on these.

The characteristic of 'natural setting' is attributed to the fact that researchers adopt methods and strategies that are viewed as naturalistic (Ibid., 2007). This means that qualitative researchers collect data through interviews and observations at the site where participants experience the phenomenon. Furthermore, they gather information by interacting with people in the natural setting—for instance, researchers conduct interviews in the form of a normal conversation, and become part of the focus group in participant observation. From the naturalistic perspective, qualitative researchers attempt to minimise or eliminate their own effects on the participants such as biases or "subjectivities" (Merriam and Associates, 2002). They thus try to avoid bringing their own meaning to the research, but rather focus on learning the meaning that the participants ascribe to the particular research phenomenon. However, it is often difficult to avoid these influences; therefore, researchers identify them and treat them as part of the data collected in interpretation (see below: the section "Data Analysis and Strategies regarding Positionality" in this chapter).

Since qualitative researchers gather information themselves unassisted, they are the primary instruments for data collection and data analysis (Creswell, 2007). The research process requires them to examine documents, observe behaviour, and interview participants. They also need to be responsive and adaptive in different contexts. For instance, they must respond immediately to what participants say and engage in the conversation according to the personalities and styles of each participant (Priscilla,

¹³ Narrative analysis employs the use of stories as data. More specifically, in this analysis first-person accounts of experience are told in the form of a story. The strategies used for analysis of the data include psychological, biographical and discourse analysis (Merriam and Associates, 2002).

Robinson, and Tolley, 2004). Each of these qualities renders the research process as emergent.

Qualitative data are often gathered through multiple sources from interviews, observations and documents (Creswell, 2007). The researcher then reviews all of the data for analysis, organises them into categories, and identifies patterns and themes that cut across all of the data sources (p.38). The researcher goes through this inductive process in data analysis until he/she establishes a series of concepts. These concepts are then utilised to develop a complex picture of the issue in which the researcher discovers various factors involved in the given context.

Qualitative research includes a form of inquiry in which the researcher makes an interpretation from data collection and data analysis. The background, history, and prior knowledge of the researcher also influence the interpretation. When the audience and participants make interpretations, multiple views of the problem can emerge (Creswell, 2007, p.39). Furthermore, the qualitative researcher uses a theoretical lens through which to view the study (Ibid., 2007, p.39). He/she takes the concept of culture into account and considers gendered, racial, or class differences in the context involved.

The qualitative researcher therefore collects data in the natural setting, uses an emerging qualitative approach to inquire, and takes cultural sensitiveness into account. He/she subsequently analyses the data, develops concepts, and presents a report that includes a complex interpretation of the issues that have emerged in the research process (Ibid., 2007). The following section explains the rationale for choosing a qualitative method for this research. It also provides details of some of the strategies used in this research.

b) Rationale for Qualitative Methods for the Present Research

The aim of the present research is to explore the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers teaching Japanese in New Zealand. The main purpose is to understand their experiences and make some suggestions to other Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand and those beginner/prospective language teachers (especially from Asian countries) who come to teach in New Zealand. The focus of this research is human behaviour and it is for this reason that qualitative

research methods were employed. In particular, I considered that the use of analytic induction, grounded theory, symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, snowballing sampling, and theoretical saturation should inform my thesis (see the section “Method” in this chapter for more detail).

(i) Analytic Induction

Analytic induction is a method of data analysis that was first introduced by Znaniecki (1968). He proposed that analytic induction allowed researchers “to draw a general hypothesis from a single instance and then to substantiate it by comparing it with hypotheses derived from other different instances” (pp.261–262). Analytic induction therefore involves the process in which researchers build up explanations of phenomena from an examination of cases (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). This process then “continues until a universal explanation for all known cases of a phenomenon is attained” (p.787). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) note that qualitative research involves the inductive process in which researchers start from a point with few specific questions and gradually develop concepts and understandings through on-going analysis. Patton (1990) refers to “inductive analysis” in which qualitative researchers attempt to “make sense of the situation without imposing preexisting expectations on the phenomenon or setting under study” (p.44).

(ii) Grounded Theory

The grounded theory approach was first introduced by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The theory is defined as “a qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p.24). It is a method for discovering theories, concepts, hypotheses, and propositions directly from data (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998) that involves an inductive theorising process. One major strategy used in this approach is called the “constant comparative method” in which the researcher continually compares specific components in the data to develop concepts of the theory. This method helps the researcher address a coherent theory by refining the concepts (Ibid., 1998).

(iii) Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionism is a social-psychological approach that was derived from the work of pragmatist philosophers such as Dewey (1938) and Mead (1956).¹⁴ It is a theoretical perspective developed by sociologists such as Blumer (1969), Becker (1990), and Denzin (1992) that informs methodologies for social research (Crotty, 1998). Blumer (1969) coined the term “symbolic interactionism” with the assumption that human experience is mediated by interpretation. He claims that symbolic interactionism rests on three simple premises. These are that: (1) “human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them;” (2) “the meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one’s fellow;” and (3) “these meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretive process used by the person in dealing with the things he/she encounters” (p.2). Symbolic interactionism emphasises the importance of the meaning people give to their experience and their process of interpretation (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007, p.27). It also recognises the significance of the “self” that is “a social construction, the result of persons perceiving themselves and then developing a definition through the process of interaction” (Ibid., 2007, p.29).

(iv) Phenomenology

Phenomenology has a philosophical tradition and was first used by the German mathematician Husserl (1859–1938). Patton (1990) explains Husserl’s view that phenomenology is “the study of how people describe things and experience them through their senses” (p.69). Patton emphasises that through phenomenology individuals’ experiences with a phenomenon may be described, explicated, and interpreted so as to develop a world view through making sense of the subjective experiences. In a more recent work on qualitative inquiry, Creswell (2007) has defined that “phenomenological study describes the meaning for a number of individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon” (p.57). Phenomenology thus focuses on inquiring what individuals have in common to experience a phenomenon and describes the universal essence by reducing individual experiences of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007).

¹⁴ Mead (1956) argued that the self develops in the given individual as a result of his/her relations to the process of social experience and activity as a whole and to other individuals within that process (p.212).

(v) Snowballing Sampling

Snowballing sampling, which is also known as chain referral sampling, is one of the most common sampling methods used in qualitative research (Priscilla, Robinson, and Tolley, 2004). It is a type of purposive sampling such that the participants are selected according to preselected criteria relevant to the research questions. Snowballing sampling is used when the researcher needs to develop a research sample for data collection (Lofland and Lofland, 1995). In this technique, one participant is asked to introduce another person who meets the criteria and might be willing to participate in the research. The participant who introduces another often uses his/her social network. This enables the researcher to recruit participants who are otherwise often hard to reach (Priscilla, Robinson, and Tolley, 2004).

(vi) Theoretical Saturation

Theoretical saturation refers to “no new or significant data emerge, and categories are well developed in terms of properties and dimensions” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p.215). In the process of data analysis to develop categories, researchers attempt to find as many incidents, happenings, and instances as possible to identify recurring patterns and themes. Researchers then eventually come to a point when they no longer find new information to develop categories in the data. This is called “data saturation” (Creswell, 2007). Saturation occurs when the researcher has identified and fully developed the major themes, and new evidence does not provide additional themes (Creswell, 2008, p.257). In a grounded theory research, therefore, sample sizes are determined on the basis of theoretical saturation.

c) Methods of Inquiry

Lofland and Lofland (1995) suggest two methods commonly used in qualitative research: “participant observation” and “intensive interviewing.” Participant observation refers to “the process in which an investigator establishes and sustains a many-sided and relatively long-term relationship with a human association in its natural setting for the purpose of developing a scientific understanding of the association” (p.18). Intensive interviewing is “a guided conversation whose goal is to elicit from the interviewee/informant rich, detailed materials that can be used in qualitative analysis” (p.18). In qualitative research, participant observation alone is efficient for yielding rich data when the research is to explore and understand, for example, the lives of certain

people. Intensive interviewing includes mainly two forms of interview: group interviews and one-to-one interviews. When the researcher considers more specialised interviews, he/she employs “focus group interviews” (Lofland and Lofland, 1995) to target a certain cultural group or subgroups represented.

Priscilla, Robinson, and Tolley (2004) suggest that qualitative research is effective, for instance, when researchers examine culturally specific areas such as the values, opinions, behaviours and social contexts of a specific group of people. Because qualitative research employs methods such as interviews in which the researcher uses open-ended questions, the participants are able to respond freely and in detail. The researcher also “probes” (Ibid., 2004) to obtain more detailed information so that participants are able to elaborate on their responses. These strategies help researchers elicit descriptive information that is rich and explanatory in nature.

Qualitative data obtained through participant observation, in-depth interviews, and focus groups therefore provide the researcher with rich and complex understandings specific to the social contexts or phenomena (Ibid., 2004, p.2). The findings can be generalised to other geographical areas or populations, although the concepts gained in the specific contexts or phenomena nevertheless precede generalisation (Ibid., 2004). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) add that settings and people are not reduced to variables for analysis in qualitative research. This enables researchers to learn the concepts about people in the contexts of their pasts and the situations (p.8).

By conducting in-depth interviews, and school and classroom observations, I have been able to gain an impression of my participants’ experiences. Qualitative analysis of the data has allowed me to make sense of diversity within and between participants, their backgrounds, and experiences of working in New Zealand schools.

d) Data Analysis and Strategies regarding Positionality

Once data are collected through interviews, participant observations, and other forms of data collection (for example, document analysis), the data are inductively analysed through coding to identify the recurring patterns or common themes that cut across the data (Merriam and Associates, 2002, p.7). Coding is a strategy that helps

categorise data into appropriate themes. When the researcher constructs interpretations through data analysis, he/she needs to be reflexive “to have an ongoing conversation about experience while simultaneously living in the moment” (Hertz, 1997, viii). The strategy called “reflexivity” requires the researcher to “clarify his/her assumptions, decisions, experience, worldview, and theoretical orientation to the study” (Merriam and Associates, 2002, p.26). The researcher therefore explains his/her position regarding the research topic, the selection of participants, the context of the study, and what values might affect data collection and analysis in the form of the “researcher’s position” (Ibid, 2002). This allows readers to better understand how and to what extent the researcher’s interests, positions, and assumptions influenced the particular interpretation of the data (Charmaz, 2006; Merriam and Associates, 2002). While themes and codes are influenced by the subjective experiences of the researcher, their main purpose is to highlight meaning-making for participants. In qualitative research, the data are usually presented in a descriptive form and are integrated with the findings. (The researcher’s position in the present research is described in Chapter One).

2. Method

The method in the present research involved two main data collection processes: a survey and interviews; and one minor data collection process: class observations (natural setting). The survey was administered through the Japanese teachers’ network of New Zealand. The interviews were conducted among volunteer survey respondents (adopted snowballing). Quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed through coding and theme selections. This section explains the rationale in developing the research tools and the processes of data collection. It also outlines some difficulties encountered during data collection.

a) Participants

The participants were people who experienced a particular phenomenon. In this case, the phenomenon was Japanese native speaker teachers who had experienced teaching Japanese as a second/foreign language at educational institutions in New Zealand, including primary, intermediate, secondary schools and tertiary institutions. All of them had Japanese educational backgrounds and had received at least primary school

education in Japan. Most of them had also received education including junior/senior high schools, and university or college in Japan. The demographic information concerning the backgrounds of the teachers is presented as an overview of the research respondents in Chapter Four.

b) Research Tools

(i) Questionnaire

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from the survey questionnaire (see Appendix A) which was distributed between December 2004 and May 2007. There were three main aims for administering the survey: to gain personal information about different types of experiences; to explore expectations and current impressions of Japanese teachers' experiences; and to invite participants for interview sessions.

Survey Design

The questionnaire was developed in three parts. The questions in Part 1 were framed in order to gain personal information, such as educational background, years of living in New Zealand, years of teaching in Japan, New Zealand and other non-Japanese speaking countries, and the past and present teaching positions that participants held. The questions in Part 2 asked participants to describe their expectations and current impressions of their teaching experiences. In Part 3, participants were asked for their consent to participate in interview sessions. All the questions in the survey were asked in English. In answering the questions, participants were given a choice of answering in either English or Japanese. I also developed an electronic version of the questionnaire especially for those who preferred responding by email. Questionnaires could thus be sent electronically and/or by postal mail according to the preference or convenience of participants.

Piloting

Prior to the survey, a pilot of the questionnaire was conducted with three people in order to receive feedback for improvement of the content of the survey. One of them was a male Ph.D. student, a non-native speaker of Japanese, who had been teaching Japanese at a tertiary institution. Another was a female school teacher, a native speaker of Japanese, who had been teaching Japanese mainly to young children whose parents are

Japanese nationals. The other was a female agency office worker, a native speaker of Japanese, who had graduated from a New Zealand University with an arts degree. All of them found that they had no difficulty in understanding the questions although one of them noted minor errors in wording. The wording was amended before the questionnaire was printed for distribution. I also asked one of my academic supervisors and another person who was a Japanese-English translator to try out an electronic version of the questionnaire to confirm its clarity.

Distribution and the Response Rate

Data collection for the present research was mainly determined by opportunity. Distribution of questionnaires depended on personal contact and etiquette (adopted snowballing). Sixty-eight questionnaires were distributed and fifty-two were returned with the response rate of 76.5 per cent. Because of its opportunistic nature, distribution did not occur as one circulation. The following are the processes of distributing the questionnaire and collecting the survey data (see below: Table 1).

The first distribution was made in December 2004 through personal contacts, colleagues and friends of Japanese teachers who had been teaching in New Zealand. Eighteen questionnaires were distributed and fifteen were returned by May 2005, with the response rate of 83.3 per cent.

Table 1.

Number of distribution and response rate of the questionnaire

Cluster of distribution	Months of the first distribution	n	Months of collection	n	Response rate %
1 st	Dec. 04	18	Dec. 04–May 05	15	83.3
2 nd	Feb. 05	5	Feb.–Mar. 05	5	100
3 rd	May 05	7	May 05	4	57.1
4 th	May–Aug.05	23	May–Aug. 05	16	69.6
5 th	Oct. 05	6	Oct. 05–May 06	3	50
6 th	Apr. 07	9	Apr. 07	9	100
Total / Average		68		52	76.5

The next contact was by email to the electronic network of Japanese teachers through the website NZJNET (New Zealand Japanese Network). The number of teachers in this network throughout the nation was 125 in January 2005. Research participants were canvassed in February 2005, by sending an email to this mailing list, explaining the purpose of the research. Five teachers responded to the email to ask for a questionnaire, and the questionnaire was distributed to each teacher by email. They returned the questionnaire with the response rate of one hundred per cent.

After this data collection, one of the teachers contacted me and offered to distribute the questionnaire at a Japanese teachers' meeting which was scheduled to be held in May 2005. At the meeting, seven questionnaires were distributed and four were returned, with the response rate of 57.1 per cent.

Soon after this, I searched institution websites for teaching staff of Japanese Studies at New Zealand tertiary institutions. I then approached each Head of Department of Japanese at six institutions with the assistance of my two academic supervisors. I wrote them a short letter of introduction (see Appendix B) and sent information with the questionnaire in the hope of getting approval for conducting my survey at each institution. I received the approval from all of these six institutions by August 2005, and made the fourth distribution. Twenty-three questionnaires were distributed at this time and sixteen were returned, with the response rate of 69.6 per cent.

The fifth distribution was made through a Japanese teachers' meeting held in October 2005. At the meeting, I explained the outline of the research and asked people to participate in my research. I distributed four questionnaires after the meeting and obtained the agreement for participation in both survey and interviews from two of the teachers on the spot. Through this meeting, I was informed that there were two more native speaker teachers within the region where they teach. I sent questionnaires to these teachers the next day. Through this network of teachers, six questionnaires were distributed and three were returned with the response rate of fifty per cent.

The last distribution was made at the Sasakawa¹⁵ conference held in Christchurch for two days in April 2007. Over sixty Japanese teachers from various regions in New Zealand attended the conference, of whom nine teachers were Japanese native speakers. I distributed nine questionnaires to these native speaker teachers and all of them were returned by the last day of the conference, with the response rate of one hundred per cent.

(ii) Interviews

Following the first distribution of questionnaires, interviews were conducted between December 2004 and May 2007. Interview dates were decided at participants' convenience. During interviews, participants provided detailed information in relation to their backgrounds and experiences in teaching (phenomenology).

Response Rate

The number of survey respondents who agreed to participate in the follow-up interviews was thirty-five out of fifty-two, with the response rate of 67.3 per cent. Twenty-three teachers were interviewed face to face and two teachers were interviewed by telephone. I used the telephone for two participants because I had no opportunity to visit them. Interview participants included five male and twenty female teachers. All but three participants were interviewed only once. The exceptions included two who were interviewed twice and one who was interviewed three times. I interviewed these two teachers twice because they offered another interview session. After interviews, I asked all participants whether I could contact them for clarification. Responding to my question, these two teachers suggested another session. On the other hand, I interviewed one participant three times because this teacher preferred to have a short interview session a few times rather than having one longer interview session.

¹⁵ The Sasakawa Fellowship Fund for Japanese Language Education was established in 1995. In New Zealand, Massey University received an endowment from the Nippon Foundation of Tokyo (then the Sasakawa Foundation) to fund a programme for the enhancement of Japanese language education and Japanese Studies in New Zealand. The Sasakawa Fellowship Fund offers a range of opportunities for teachers and students in New Zealand, including trips to Japan, professional development courses, and scholarships for various purposes.

Interview Format

Interviews were semi-structured, ranging from thirty minutes to over one hour for each session, and were conducted in Japanese language. All participants were informed in advance that interview questions would be from the questionnaire and that more detailed descriptions regarding each question would be required in interviews. I also designed an extended question sheet (see Appendix C) which was distributed to the participants before the interview date.

Completed questionnaires were used as part of my “interview guide” (Lofland and Lofland, 1995) which included participant personal profile, my questions prompted by individual responses to each question in the questionnaire, and interview tips. The interview tips helped me ensure consistency in covering similar topics in a similar way for each interviewee. To start with the notes reminded me to express my appreciation for their participation. The main questions were listed and some of them were highlighted to remind me to ask them during the interview. Some notes were also included as a reminder, especially for the confirmation of confidentiality.

At the start of each interview session, I confirmed the confidentiality of personal information to the effect that the interview contents would remain anonymous and that I would use pseudonyms in writing the results of my research. I asked participants to sign the consent form (see Appendix D), and confirmed with them their consent for me to use an audio-tape recorder during interviews. I assured them that I would try to talk as little as possible so that participants would have more time to talk freely about themselves. I also expressed that I would be happy to answer any questions during the interview.

Each interview started with me confirming the personal information in the questionnaire. In addition, I asked open-ended questions to obtain more detailed information. For instance, these types of questions were: “You have taught in Japan for four years. Can you tell me what you did in Japan in more detail?” or “You have been teaching in New Zealand for twelve years. How did you find teaching in New Zealand?” or “You have teaching qualifications from Japan and New Zealand. What

do you think of having a teaching qualification?" Such questions encouraged the participants to expand their answers.

The interview also gave me the opportunity to clarify some questionnaire responses. In Part 2 in the questionnaire, for instance, one of the questions was "What surprised you about teaching in New Zealand?" and the answers varied according to individual experience. For example, one of the responses was "I was surprised by having no set textbook at school." So I asked, "You mentioned about having no fixed textbooks provided by the school. What do you think of this? Can you explain your point of view?" Another question was "What have been the best two things for you about teaching in New Zealand?" Responding to this question, a teacher might specify in the questionnaire that, say, he/she had been satisfied with receiving professional development (PD) courses to brush up his/her teaching skill. Then I asked this participant, "How did you find PD courses? In what way did the courses benefit you? Can you explain by giving me some examples?" As I asked more questions, teachers extended their ideas and described their topic in greater detail.

The list of expanded questions that I prepared in advance was used as a check to ensure that all topics were covered, but responses were open-ended. During interviews, each time my participant talked, I was able to tick each specific point or area. This helped me avoid confusion when topics changed depending on individuals. As the interview proceeded, the rapport between me and my participant developed. This contributed to eliciting more detailed information in specific areas from my participants.

Interview Procedure and Data Analysis

Conducting each interview was determined by the availability of the participant teachers and my physical access to them. There was no consistency in deciding the interview date, and the meeting opportunities were sometimes flexible. The survey was divided into six clusters of distributions and I waited for the offer of participation in interviews from survey respondents at each stage of distribution. Some replied to me in the completed questionnaire by post and others responded to me by email. I subsequently contacted those who had offered to participate in interview sessions mainly by email to arrange the time and date for interviews.

In accordance with the established qualitative research approach, each interview only occurred after the previous interview had been transcribed and coded. Lofland and Lofland (1995) suggest that researchers should start coding quite early in the research process with as much regularity and frequency as possible without being concerned about the eventual viability of a code (p.190). I therefore generated many separate codes in the early stages of my research. As I developed a file system for coding, I found some codes occurring with more frequency and regularity than others. This enabled me to focus each interview according to the emerging codes and strengthening themes (inductive process).

For the first ten interviews, I transcribed verbatim, sent the transcripts to participants for their feedback, and translated the language used during interviews from Japanese to English. English translation was then checked by one of my supervisors who is fluent in Japanese and understands Japanese culture well, in order to ensure that reasonably natural English expressions were produced in the English version of transcripts. Subsequently, I coded the transcripts and analysed them by entering the data into software called Nudist 4. From the ten samples, I created over one hundred free nodes (codes) and collapsed these into fifteen possible roots/themes. This enabled me to adapt each interview to test the rigour of these themes (analytic induction).

In 2006, seven more interviews were conducted between May and August. During these interviews, I focused on the main themes by asking particular questions derived from the data analyses of the first ten interviews. I transcribed these seven interviews verbatim, sent the transcripts to participants for feedback and translated them from Japanese to English. My English translation was then checked by my Japanese-speaking supervisor. I coded the transcripts and analysed them to add some extra relevant focus areas. At this stage, I stopped using the software for analysis as I found it was cumbersome and was not extending my data analysis. I thereafter used Microsoft Word alone, which prolonged the time that it took to analyse the data.

In 2007, eight more interviews were conducted between March and May. After the first interview for 2007 was conducted, which was the eighteenth interview, I felt that I had reached data saturation. However, I continued conducting interviews as this

gave me the opportunity to meet new teachers from a wide range of areas throughout New Zealand at a conference held in a large metropolitan area. I focused on the particular questions in relation to the common themes I had found among the last eighteen interviews. For these last seven interviews, I transcribed verbatim, sent the transcripts to participants for feedback, and translated the transcripts from Japanese to English. As before, my English translation was then checked by my Japanese-speaking supervisor. I coded the transcripts and made further analyses. Through this last cluster of interviews, I was able to confirm and reinforce some of the ideas that I had developed from the last eighteen interviews (grounded theory). Also, I was able to add a couple more themes to the existing data, which were found among new participant teachers.

(iii) Class Observations

In addition, when possible, I asked participants about the possibility of my observing their classes. Those observation opportunities were arranged beforehand with the teachers. I received an agreement for observation from four teachers. I observed their classes either before or after the interview session for nine hours altogether. These classroom observations helped me visualise and to make sense of the explanations of what those teachers described during interviews. I kept journals of each visit for interview as well as school and classroom observations.

c) Research Realities (Dilemmas and Solutions)

(i) Interviews

During the first couple of interviews, I learned that I should minimise the amount that I talk during interviews. I realised this when I was transcribing the interviews. I found that what participants were saying was sometimes cut off by my comments. Because of my interruptions, participants sometimes could not continue talking and seemed unable to expand their point of view. I also learned that I should not just let participants talk about whatever they liked. The topics had to be targeted and I was able to facilitate this by writing guidelines of questions beforehand. It was fortunate that my first two interview participants were tolerant and offered me plenty of time to cover the topics, although it took longer than the average for the other interviews.

I also realised that sometimes I had spent a long time listening to the life stories of participants. I found it useful to have a long interview because the contents of life stories sometimes drew upon valuable themes. However, as I interviewed more people, I noticed that long interviews do not always suit busy teachers. Also, I had been requested by some of the participants to minimise the time spent on interviews. I confirmed that spending just over half an hour was long enough to cover all the targeted questions that I had prepared, especially when teachers were also prepared for the interviews. Well-prepared teachers clearly described their experiences and stated their ideas in a co-operative and efficient manner. On the other hand, I felt that listening to the stories provided by teachers was still valuable because they often included their personal experiences in teaching that I had never come across in my own teaching. Those stories sometimes brought up new topics and were, therefore, useful to me in terms of exploring the themes in my research topic, especially when they were related to Japanese language teaching. This situation created the dilemma of whether to hurry or not to hurry in interview; therefore, I took my cue from the participant most of the time.

(ii) Timing for Distribution of Questionnaire

I found that timing was important for distributing questionnaires to teachers who were very busy during the academic year. When exam times approached or towards the end of the academic year, they became especially busy with preparation for final examinations. On the other hand, it was also difficult to get hold of teachers during holiday times when they were away from school. I found that the most appropriate times for interviews were during the third or fourth week of either term two or term three.

(iii) Reminding

After I distributed questionnaires, some respondents replied to me within one week, while others gave me no response. Consequently, I sent a reminder by email or sent the questionnaire one more time by email or by post. If I knew their contact phone numbers, I sometimes telephoned them to give them a gentle reminder. This was useful as I received three questionnaires as a result of reminders.

(iv) My Concerns and the Solutions

I was initially unsure of how I should be conducting my research involving the survey and interviews, especially as regards how to find research participants and to collect a sufficient volume of data for analysis. However, I was reassured by my academic supervisors and fellow research students that by taking opportunities and continuous planning I would reach data saturation.

One of my main concerns was related to scheduling the time for conducting the survey and interviews. I first needed to consider maximising the opportunities for obtaining participants and minimising the risk of receiving cancellations from interview participants. I therefore contacted those who had agreed to participate in interviews once I received positive responses from them so as to arrange the interview date. I also needed to consider the time allowed for transcribing each interview together with journal writing and data analysis, followed by preparing each interview transcript. In addition, I needed to translate the language used during interviews from Japanese into English by myself for future use before I embarked on data analysis. Having considered all these aspects and the opportunistic nature of data collection of my research, I decided to divide the distribution of the questionnaire into six clusters (see the section “Distribution and the Response Rate” in this chapter). This enabled me to prepare for each interview, including scheduling the date for interview and handling the subsequent data analysis.

The other concern was how to recruit teachers for interviews. Although I called for interview participants in the questionnaire, I found it difficult to receive positive responses especially from unknown teachers. In fact, those who had agreed to participate in interview sessions were mostly people that I had known previously. These teachers then introduced me to some others who were available for interviews (snowballing). All of the teachers who were introduced through snowballing contacted me by email to volunteer participating in my research.

(v) Handling Obstacles

One of the difficulties that I came across was related to scheduling the interview sessions. Some of my participants changed the interview date, three or four times, for various reasons. In such cases, they usually contacted me to notify me that they could

not meet me on the scheduled date. In the end, a few of the interview sessions that had been scheduled were cancelled altogether because I was no longer able to confirm a date with those teachers. In other cases, all I had to do was to wait for them to rearrange the time, and I eventually managed to interview them. There was one teacher who informed me by email that he/she would like to cancel the interview because of his/her personal circumstances. In another case, I lost contact with a would-be interview participant because one particular condition that he/she requested regarding confidentiality was beyond my control. I asked for his/her participation several times but received no response in the end.

Although thirty-five teachers offered to participate in interview sessions, I could not manage to meet all of them (cancellation by participants was one reason). Another was that some participants were living at a distance and I was not able to visit them for interviews. Since I preferred meeting face-to-face with my participants rather than interviewing them by telephone, I reserved their offers and kept my options open. One meeting opportunity arose when a teacher contacted me, and we were able to meet at the airport for interview. Another chance came up when I had the opportunity to visit teachers in a city in New Zealand. A further chance came when I met teachers at a conference held in a large metropolitan area where over sixty Japanese teachers from various parts of New Zealand gathered for exchanging information on Japanese language studies.

(vi) Rewarding

I noticed that my colleagues in New Zealand do not normally reward interview participants; however, I decided to respect the participation of my participants, and therefore decided to reward them. I was also reminded by one of the would-be interview participants about rewarding. To reward my participants, I invited them to drink coffee and eat some light snack or meal after the interview sessions whenever possible. While some teachers declined my offer, others accepted it and spent some time with me, mostly straight after interviews. During these times, I was given the opportunity to listen to teachers' stories such as their present situation at school in more detail. Although I did not formally record their stories, with their consent, I later wrote down in my journal some of the information that I gained from these opportunities.

(vii) After Interviews

When I was writing my journal after interviews, I sometimes realised that I should have asked a particular question during the interview. Although I had prepared an interview guide for each participant including some key questions, I still missed asking some questions, mainly because these questions were related to a particular issue brought up impromptu by individuals during interviews. Subsequently, I emailed to try to contact some of the teachers that I had interviewed. In some cases, I received replies, while in other cases I received no response. Therefore, the new questions were kept in my journal and included in the list of questions for future interviews.

(viii) Others

In the present research, I targeted Japanese native-speaker teachers as participants. I used some name lists provided through the network of Japanese teachers to identify native speaker teachers by their names. Later, I discovered that one of the teachers having a Japanese name was brought up outside Japan as a non-native speaker of Japanese. I happened to meet this teacher at a conference. This situation made me realise that I would otherwise never have realised that there might be some other teachers with Japanese names who were brought up in other countries as non-native speakers of Japanese.

d) Ethics Approval

Prior to the survey, ethics approval was granted from the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee. The copy of the approval letter is shown in Appendix E. The application procedure mainly involved assuring the confidentiality of collected data. In my case, I planned to store the data in a locked cabinet and use a password to access the data in my computer. In relation to the anonymity of the participants being assured, I suggested the use of pseudonyms to avoid exposure of personal information, and employed generalities about the location of interviews.

The covering page of the questionnaire informed the potential participants about the scope of the research and assured them of confidentiality regarding their personal information (see Appendix A). At the end of the present research, I pledged to dispose of audio-tapes or personal information in an appropriate manner.

CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH RESPONDENTS

The questionnaire design allowed for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. In this chapter, I describe the collated demographic information of the questionnaire respondents. This provides an overview of the Japanese native speaker teachers who participated in this research. Also, in this chapter I include some comments made during my interviews by some teachers who had completed the questionnaires. Interview data come from volunteers and add depth to some comments. It was expected that the content of some interviews described in this chapter would be rather personal; therefore, where personal information is described, I have omitted pseudonyms. I have used *italics* to denote a verbal response.¹⁶

1. Demographic Information

Sixty-eight questionnaires were distributed in the survey and fifty-two were returned during the first phase in the present research. The quantitative data were collected from the first section in the questionnaire. They pertain to gender, qualifications, length of living in New Zealand, years of teaching in Japan and in New Zealand, types of teaching positions experienced, and current teaching hours. The next section provides this demographic information about the fifty-two Japanese native speaker teachers who responded to the questionnaire.

a) Gender

Fifty-two teachers responded to the questionnaire of whom twelve were male and forty were female. The gender ratio (approximately 1:3) was similar to the ratio in the population of Japanese native speaker teachers registered in the New Zealand Association of Japanese Language Teachers. In 2005, ten male and forty-nine female Japanese native speaker teachers were listed (a ratio of 1:5). Of the fifty-two questionnaire respondents, thirty-five teachers agreed to participate (sixty-seven per cent volunteer rate) in the follow-up interviews.

¹⁶ In this thesis, interview data collected from volunteers are mostly quoted under each pseudonym in *italics*. I also used *italics* to denote a written response made by questionnaire respondents, which are not collated but serve as representative of many comments.

b) Academic Qualifications and Teaching Experience

Table 2 describes the qualifications that teachers had obtained from Japan and from New Zealand. It shows that some of the teachers held more than one qualification.

In Japan, students do not need to go to a designated college of education to obtain a teaching qualification. Rather, they are able to choose to obtain a teaching qualification with a university degree. At university, students who wish to obtain a teaching qualification take extra subjects and a four week training section.

Table 2 shows that 86.5 per cent of the questionnaire respondents had graduated from university in Japan and nearly half of the teachers responded that they held a teaching qualification from Japan (48.1 per cent) and/or from New Zealand (46.2 per cent).

Table 2.

Qualifications obtained from Japan and New Zealand (n = 52)

Qualifications from Japan	* n	Qualifications From New Zealand	* n
Two-year College	3 (5.8%)	None	11 (21.1%)
University (Undergraduate)	45 (86.5%)	University (Undergraduate)	10 (19.2%)
University (Postgraduate) **	13 (25.0%)	University (Postgraduate)	22 (42.3%)
Teaching Qualification	25 (48.1%)	Teaching Qualification	24 (46.2%)
Others ***	3 (5.8%)	Others ***	2 (3.9%)

* Some respondents indicated more than one option.

** In the questionnaire, Question 2 asked for the highest qualification from Japan. Those who indicated with postgraduate university as the highest qualification were likely to hold a university (undergraduate) degree.

*** Others included high school in Japan and bursary level in New Zealand respectively.

Table 3 describes the original tertiary qualifications that teachers had obtained from Japan and their additional New Zealand qualifications. The original qualifications are listed according to the combination that each teacher held, while the additional New

Zealand qualifications are shown for each category. For example, it shows that fifteen teachers (28.8 per cent) held a university degree and they added New Zealand tertiary qualifications, including university degree (7.7 per cent), university postgraduate degree (7.7 per cent) and teaching qualification (13.5 per cent). More than one third of the teachers (34.6 per cent) held a university degree and teaching qualification obtained from Japan. Of these, 11.5 per cent added a New Zealand university postgraduate degree, while 21.2 per cent added a New Zealand teaching qualification. Most of the teachers pursued higher New Zealand qualifications than they had previously obtained in Japan.

Table 3.

Tertiary qualifications obtained from Japan and additional New Zealand qualifications
(n = 52)

Original Tertiary Qualifications from Japan		Additional New Zealand Qualifications *		
		University (Undergraduate)	University (Postgraduate)	Teaching Qualification
None	3 (5.8%)	3 (5.8%)	0	2 (3.9%)
Two-year College	3 (5.8%)	2 (3.9%)	1 (1.9%)	2 (3.9%)
University (Undergraduate)	15 (28.8%)	4 (7.7%)	4 (7.7%)	7 (13.5%)
University (Undergraduate) + University (Postgraduate)	7 (13.5%)	0	6 (11.5%)	1 (1.9%)
University (Undergraduate) + Teaching Qualification	18 (34.6%)	0	6 (11.5%)	11 (21.2%)
University (Undergraduate) + University (Postgraduate) + Teaching Qualification	6 (11.5%)	1 (1.9%)	5 (9.6%)	1 (1.9%)
Total	52 (100%)	10 (19.2%)	22 (42.3%)	24 (46.2%)

* Some respondents indicated more than one additional New Zealand qualification.

According to the report of the 2004 Teacher Census which was released by the Ministry of Education in New Zealand, forty-nine per cent of over 15,000 secondary school teachers surveyed (eighty-nine per cent response rate) held a Diploma of Teaching, thirty-five per cent had other teaching qualifications, and six per cent had no formal teaching qualification. It is also reported that ten per cent of the secondary school teachers held a Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Teaching when they started

teaching. With reference to these results, the respondents in the present research were on average more qualified than the overall secondary school teachers in New Zealand.

Table 4 shows previous teaching experience in Japan and in non-Japanese speaking countries other than New Zealand according to years of teaching. Years of teaching varied across teachers and the countries where they had taught. Some of the teachers had teaching experience both in Japan and in other non-Japanese speaking countries, whereas others had teaching experience either in Japan only or in other countries only.

Questionnaire respondents in the present research tended to have had either no teaching experience outside Japan or had served as a teacher for five years or more. Twelve teachers (23.1 per cent) had no teaching experience before coming to New Zealand. On the other hand, twenty teachers (38.5 per cent) had teaching experience for five years or more in Japan and seven teachers (13.5 per cent) had teaching experience for five years or more in non-Japanese speaking countries other than New Zealand. Three teachers (5.8 per cent) were most experienced, with teaching experience both in Japan and in other countries for five years or more.

Table 4.

Previous teaching experience in Japan and
non-Japanese speaking countries other than New Zealand (n =52)

Years of teaching	None (in other countries)	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years or more	Total
None (in Japan)	12 (23.1%)	1 (1.9%)	0	0	0	3 (5.8%)	16 (30.8%)
1 year	3 (5.8%)	0	0	0	0	1 (1.9%)	4 (7.7%)
2 years	2 (3.9%)	1 (1.9%)	1 (1.9%)	0	0	0	4 (7.7%)
3 years	4 (7.7%)	0	0	0	0	0	4 (7.7%)
4 years	4 (7.7%)	0	0	0	0	0	4 (7.7%)
5 years or more	13 (25.0%)	1 (1.9%)	2 (3.9%)	0	1 (1.9%)	3 (5.8%)	20 (38.5%)
Total	38 (73.1%)	3 (5.8%)	3 (5.8%)	0	1 (1.9%)	7 (13.5%)	52 (100%)

Table 5 outlines the length of teaching that respondents had served in New Zealand schools. Years of teaching ranged from one year to more than twelve years. It shows that length of teaching varied across teachers and that, for example, sixteen teachers (30.8 per cent) had taught for more than twelve years in New Zealand.

Table 5.

Teaching experience in New Zealand

Year(s) of teaching	n	Year(s) of teaching	n
1 year	4 (7.7%)	2 years	6 (11.5%)
3 years	2 (3.8%)	4 years	6 (11.5%)
5 years	3 (5.8%)	6 years	4 (7.7%)
7 years	3 (5.8%)	8 years	2 (3.8%)
9 years	2 (3.8%)	10 years	2 (3.8%)
11 years	2 (3.8%)	12 years or more	16 (30.8%)
		Total	52 (100%)

Figure 3 shows the current teaching hours per week. The teaching hours varied because some worked full-time, while others worked part-time. Teaching hours for full-time/part-time positions were also different between schools and tertiary institutions. In some cases, teachers worked part-time at more than one school.

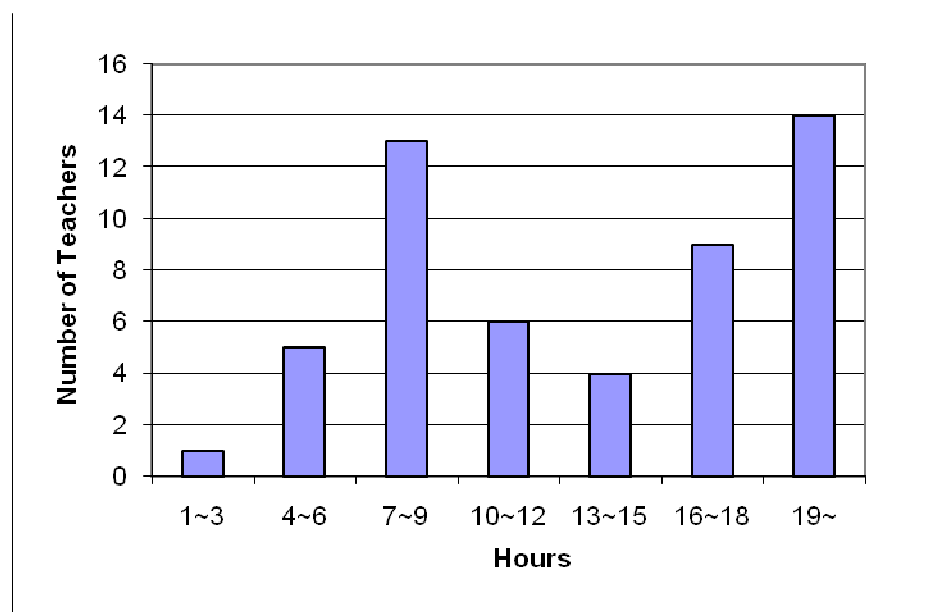


Figure 3. Current hour(s) of teaching per week (n=52)

To summarise, the majority of the teachers held a university undergraduate degree obtained from Japan (86.5 per cent). Of these, 34.6 per cent also held a teaching qualification obtained from Japan. Although the combinations of academic qualifications varied across teachers, higher New Zealand qualifications had often been pursued to add to the original Japanese qualifications. Regardless of degree held, nearly half of the teachers held a teaching qualification obtained from Japan (48.1 per cent) and/or from New Zealand (46.2 per cent). Length of teaching in Japan and non-Japanese speaking countries ranged from none to five years or more. Some (23.1 per cent) had had no teaching experience before, while the rest (76.9 per cent) had teaching experience either in Japan or in non-Japanese speaking countries, or in both areas. Nearly one-third of the teachers (30.8 per cent) had had teaching experience in New Zealand for twelve years or more. Current teaching hours varied, mainly depending on whether they worked full-time or part-time.

c) Other Background Information

Among the fifty-two questionnaire respondents, thirty-five teachers volunteered to be interviewed for the second phase of the present research, of whom twenty-five teachers were actually interviewed. The interview participants consisted of five male and twenty female teachers who taught in various areas situated in the North Island and in the South Island throughout New Zealand. The locations included Auckland, Hamilton, Rotorua, Palmerston North, Wellington, Christchurch, Invercargill and other small towns.

In the present research, some teachers applied for a teaching position in the 1980s, while others applied in the 1990s. There were also other teachers who applied for a teaching position after the year 2000. The times when they applied for a teaching position did not always coincide with when they arrived in New Zealand.

The current workplaces of the teachers interviewed varied. Seventeen teachers interviewed were mainly involved in secondary school education, while eight lecturers/tutors interviewed were working in tertiary institutions. The schools/tertiary institutions in which the participants taught included primary schools, intermediate schools, secondary schools, universities, and polytechnics. There were some teachers who worked for more than one school/institution. For example, they taught full-time at secondary school and regularly went to intermediate schools to teach for a few hours per

week. Others taught part-time at more than one secondary school. There were also a few cases where teachers taught at school part-time while working for other non-teaching related workplaces on a casual basis.

In interviews, participants described their backgrounds, reasons for coming to New Zealand and work experiences through previous career changes. These are now described below.

2. Reasons for Coming to New Zealand

All of the teachers interviewed indicated one or more reasons for coming/immigrating to New Zealand. These reasons can be categorised according to purpose and were divided into three main areas: family reasons, personal reasons, and work-related reasons.

a) Family Reasons for Coming to New Zealand

One of the reasons which was related to family matters was that partners of the teachers were New Zealanders. Some teachers mentioned that they needed to follow their partners for the continuation of their marriage and that they would have gone to other countries if their partners had been from other countries.

One said, ...so I decided to get married [to a New Zealander] and came to New Zealand. I had never been to New Zealand before. ... I thought that we would be able to move again if we did not like living in New Zealand. There was no problem about that, I think.

Another said, My ex-husband was a Kiwi. That's all. We got married in England and came to New Zealand.

Another reason was that they wanted their children to be educated in New Zealand for the sake of their children's future.

One said, Well, I had a different reason for coming to New Zealand. ... The main reason was to bring up my children in an English-speaking country.

Another said, New Zealand provides an environment in which children can thrive academically and in sporting activities.

They gave particular reasons for having chosen New Zealand as their destination. They thought that New Zealand was one of the safest countries in the world and that New Zealand was abundant in natural resources; therefore, it would be a suitable place to bring up their children and they would enjoy life in New Zealand.

One said, Compared to living in Tokyo, it is better to live in a small town like here in New Zealand especially for bringing up children.

In this way, some teachers came/immigrated to New Zealand for family reasons: one reason was the continuation of their marriage and another reason was rearing their children. Those teachers in the former category just happened to come to New Zealand, while those in the latter had particularly chosen to live in New Zealand.

b) Personal Reasons for Coming to New Zealand

Other teachers came to New Zealand for their own personal reasons, such as studying, travelling, playing sports and gaining life experience. Some of them were short-term visitors on their first arrival, while others were on a visitor's visa that allowed them to stay for more than three months. Those who came first on a study visa had stayed in New Zealand for more than half a year.

(i) Study

One said, After I finished my high school in Japan, I came to New Zealand to study English first. And then I continued studying at university.

Another said, I came to New Zealand to study at secondary school. Then I went back to Japan to study at university. I came back to New Zealand after having worked for a few years in Japan because I found a teaching job over here.

A couple of teachers remarked that they wanted to learn the New Zealand education system as a teacher. That was one of the reasons for the teachers who had had teaching experience in Japan.

One said, I had one year off from my school and came to New Zealand. I was very interested in finding out about the education system in New Zealand. I often observed classrooms at school over here and found it very interesting.

In short, the main reason for coming to New Zealand to study included studying English, going to school or university, and learning about the New Zealand education system as a teacher.

(ii) Travel

Many teachers remarked that one of the reasons for coming to New Zealand included travelling around in New Zealand, although most of them also had other reasons, such as working and visiting friends. One who visited New Zealand for a short term without holding any visa, described what happened when she arrived in New Zealand as a visitor for the first time. She said,

In early 1980s, I used to work part-time in Japan. Every time I saved enough money, I travelled overseas. One time I went to Australia and stayed there for three months. On the way back to Japan, I stopped off in New Zealand to stay for three weeks. That was the first time for me to visit New Zealand.

She continued to explain how she ended up staying in New Zealand for another year for her job. She said,

A few years later, I revisited New Zealand with one of my students and I stayed for three months that time. Three months was the longest period of time that I was able to stay as a visitor to New Zealand without holding a visa. During my stay, I was given the opportunity to do some translation work. Then I was asked to stay for another year to continue working as a translator. So I stayed for another year on a work permit.

This objective to travel, stay in New Zealand, find out about New Zealand, and gain life experience from it was mentioned by a number of interviewees.

(iii) Safe/Attractive Destination

Although the personal reasons varied across teachers, most of them remarked that they had deliberately chosen New Zealand as a destination. They chose New Zealand because they perceived it to be clean, safe, and abundant in nature, and because it is an English speaking country. One of them whose initial reason to come to New Zealand was to study English as a second language explained the reason for having chosen New Zealand as a destination, as follows. She said,

The first time I came to New Zealand, I mainly studied English at a language school. I don't think my parents would have given me permission to go to foreign countries other than New Zealand. We understood that New Zealand was safer than any other English speaking countries.

Most of the teachers who provided a similar point of view to the above regarding the perception of New Zealand as a country indicated that they had learnt about New Zealand from various sources. These sources included their friends who had been living in New Zealand, colleagues, the mass media, such as magazines and TV programmes, and various agencies. The one who learned about New Zealand on television explained,

I watched a TV programme in Japan showing New Zealand. I was impressed by the beautiful scenery and the surroundings that people had in New Zealand, such as the Milford track. I wanted to visit New Zealand one day.

(iv) Contacts/Friends

Some of the teachers had had opportunities to visit New Zealand beforehand. They had found that New Zealand was a suitable place to live.

One said, I used to visit my friends in New Zealand every year. They had been living in New Zealand for seven years when I first visited them. Through the visits, I thought that it would be ideal if I could spend my second life being surrounded by different cultures.

Another said, I had a best friend living in Auckland for a long time. Initially, I wanted to go to the States, but then I could not go. I told my friend that I wanted to live overseas and he told me to join him in New Zealand. That's why I visited New Zealand when I was on school holidays.

Several teachers remarked that they came to New Zealand through agencies either as a student or to become a teacher. They indicated that the decision was made through the advice given by an agency. One of them explained,

I chose New Zealand as a country to go and study English. ... The agency had a system that allowed parents to contact them any time. My parents could find out my situation in New Zealand whenever they wanted. That's why I came to New Zealand through an agency.

In this way, some teachers had depended on their contacts or friends to help make their decision to come to New Zealand for various purposes.

(v) Sport

In addition to the above reasons, a few teachers provided a particular reason that was related to playing sports such as rugby and golf. They had received financial support either from parents or by themselves working on a work permit.

One said, The main reason for me to come to New Zealand was playing golf. I was still in my early teens when I arrived in New Zealand for the first time.

Another said, I was fond of playing rugby. The thing that I wanted to do the most in New Zealand was to play rugby.

The length of stay for the first visit to New Zealand for most of the teachers who came to New Zealand for personal reasons was up to one year. The personal reasons included studying, travelling, safe and attractive destination, contacts or friends, and participating in sport. The above can be described as “pull factors.”

c) Work Related Reasons

The other main reasons for coming to New Zealand included work-related reasons. Some arrived in New Zealand on a working holiday visa, while others came to New Zealand to work as a Japanese teacher. The New Zealand/Japan working holiday scheme was introduced by the New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade in July 1985. This scheme was established as part of the cultural exchange programme between New Zealand and Japan. Since then, a number of young people have visited New Zealand from Japan. Those who came to New Zealand to work as a teacher were introduced to a teaching position through agencies in Japan. One of the conditions of a work visa includes the requirement that people go home once the visa expires.

(i) Working Holidays

The working holiday scheme permits visa holders aged between eighteen and thirty to stay in New Zealand for up to one year for the purpose of gaining life experience through working, studying and being involved in various other activities.

One said, *I worked for a souvenir shop during my stay on a working holiday visa.*

Another said, *I came to New Zealand on a working holiday, during which I went to an English school most of the time.*

The other said, *I did lots of things when I stayed in New Zealand during my working holiday. Even though it is called a working holiday, you don't have to work. I mainly socialised with people and studied English at a language school.*

Two out of three of the above were teachers in Japan. A typical scenario was that a teacher who used to teach in Japan came to New Zealand on a working holiday visa to stay for one year. During the stay, she/he experienced the life styles in New Zealand working at various places. He/she also found the possibility of working as a teacher in New Zealand because he/she held a teaching qualification.

One said, *I came to New Zealand on a working holiday visa having one year off from work. During my stay, I often visited schools and observed various classes. I was interested in teaching in New Zealand.*

Some of the teachers who had stayed in New Zealand on a working holiday visa provided another reason to come to New Zealand. That was the age limitation under the policy.

One said, *The first time I came to New Zealand, I was on a working holiday. When I heard about the working holiday [in Japan], I wanted to go somewhere, but then I found that there was an age limitation. I was over the limit except for New Zealand, where it was up to thirty years old. In other countries, it is common for it to be up to twenty-eight and sometimes even up to only twenty-five. So I had no choice but to come to New Zealand at that time.*

Another said, *In the case of coming to New Zealand on the working holiday scheme, you can be over twenty-five years old, whereas you must be twenty-five years old or under to go to Australia or Canada on a working holiday. The main reason for coming to New Zealand on a working holiday for me was that I was already over twenty-eight at that time.*

Some of the teachers made good use of the working holiday scheme although they were restricted as to length of stay and age. Through the scheme, they were involved in various activities, including studying, working and gaining life experience. Their

work experiences during their stay on a work permit are illustrated in the following section, “Previous Work Experience in New Zealand.”

(ii) Teaching

Teaching was cited by many of the teachers as their reason for coming to New Zealand. Some of the teachers said that their main reason for coming to New Zealand was to work as a Japanese teacher. They were introduced to the opportunity to come to New Zealand through agencies.

One said, The first reason for me to come was that there was an opportunity when somebody introduced me to come to New Zealand. It was a kind of agency that introduced me to a teaching opportunity in New Zealand. I also wanted to learn English.

Another said, When I was working as a teacher in Japan, I registered my name at an agency so that they would introduce me to a teaching opportunity. We could choose a country to go to, but not a preferred town. I chose New Zealand as a destination.

Others, especially those who came to New Zealand because of having a New Zealand partner, saw that other factors influenced their choice to teach.

One said, I don't think I would have been teaching Japanese in New Zealand if I had not married my Kiwi husband. I would probably be teaching English in Japan now.

Some of them explained their reasons for choosing a teaching job, although they initially had no intention of working as a teacher in New Zealand.

One said, I happened to find a teaching position when I was looking for a job. I was initially doing my own business at home [living with my husband].

Another said, I just needed to work because of the financial situation. I could not depend on only my husband to support us. ... I did not particularly focus on teaching when I looked for a job.

Teaching opportunities differed depending on individual teachers in the present research. Some came to New Zealand as volunteer teaching assistants or as new teachers employed by a school, while others had gained teaching opportunities after

they arrived in New Zealand. Of twenty-five teachers interviewed, eight teachers actually found a New Zealand teaching position or opportunity while still in Japan, whereas the other seventeen teachers found a teaching position or opportunity after their arrival in New Zealand.

3. Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes

Prior to their arrival in New Zealand, most of the teachers had worked at various workplaces in Japan. Many of them had teaching experience at schools or educational institutions, while some had worked for companies as office workers. More than half of the teachers interviewed had experience in working both as a teacher and as an office worker in Japan. After arrival in New Zealand, they had also experienced working at a number of workplaces, including casual and professional jobs, before they applied for a Japanese teaching position in New Zealand.

a) Previous Work Experience in Japan

(i) Teaching Experience

Many of the teachers interviewed had experience in teaching at schools, educational institutions and companies in Japan. Their teaching experience included teaching at primary school, junior/senior high school, cram school, language school and tutoring at companies or as a private tutor.

In order to become a registered school teacher in Japan, one needs to hold a teaching qualification obtained from university or college. The university/college graduates are required to pass an exam in order to become a registered school teacher. Those who teach at cram school,¹⁷ language school and private tutors are not required to be registered. Teaching experiences differed according to the schools in which they had worked. For example, a primary teacher said,

I used to teach at primary school where I taught Maths, Japanese, Science, Social Science, Physical Education, Home Economics, Music and Art. I was surrounded by children all the time. ... I needed to play the piano sometimes to accompany their singing.

¹⁷ Cram schools are usually privately owned and prepare students for school and university entrance examinations, specialising in particular core subjects. Students normally attend cram schools after regular school for a couple of hours or more.

On the other hand, one of the teachers who had taught at high school said,

I taught English at secondary school. I had never taught other subjects before [coming to New Zealand].

Another teacher who used to work at cram schools said,

I concentrated on teaching subjects such as Maths and Science. We tutors all concentrated on teaching students the techniques for passing exams for the sole purpose of them entering good schools.

Some teachers were former private tutors whose focus was the students' needs.

One said, I used to teach students who were at the bottom of their class. The parents of such students usually employ a private tutor.

Some teachers who used to be language teachers or tutors worked at companies in Japan.

One said, I taught English to company employees who would be posted overseas. My job was to make sure that they got high marks in TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication). I also taught Japanese as a second language at a business school where most of my students were non-native Japanese speakers.

Another said, I used to teach Japanese at a language school to the non-native Japanese students who were working in the daytime or those who were studying at university.

The teachers in the present research had, therefore, a variety of teaching experience prior to coming to New Zealand. The years of teaching in Japan for these teachers ranged from one year to seven years. Some teachers had resigned from their teaching position in Japan with the intention of returning to teach in Japan, while others had resigned with no intention of returning. Those who had taught as a registered teacher at schools in Japan had mostly worked as a full-time teacher, while teachers at cram schools or language schools had more freedom, and they had opportunities to work for more than one school or in other fields.

(ii) Non-teaching Experience

More than half of the teachers interviewed claimed that they had work experience in fields other than teaching and that most of them had worked for companies in Japan as a “salaried man” or an “office lady.”¹⁸ For example,

One said, I used to work as a secretary for a cosmetics company. My boss was a non-native speaker of Japanese.

Another said, I used to work for a bank from nine to five. I was not a teller, but doing other work behind the counter.

The workplaces/companies included a travel agency, trading company, electronic appliances, precision machinery such as electronics, correspondence, transport, music industry, bank, real estate, market research, article publisher, cosmetics, life insurance, and self-employed business. The years of having worked for companies in Japan ranged from two to eight years.

Others had gone through career changes a few times in Japan.

One said, First of all, I was working for a travel agency for a few years. My job was to issue tickets at the counter. I changed job to teach Japanese to Chinese students. After that I taught English to Japanese native speakers at a business school.

Another said, At first, I worked for a real estate company where I was a developer. I changed my job to join a company, dealing with correspondence. After I resigned from that company, I became a tutor at a cram school.

Most of these teachers, therefore, worked for a company/companies in Japan as an office worker for a certain length of service. After they resigned from the company, they changed their career to teaching. Some of them had experience in working at more than one workplace at the same time.

One said, I used to work for a company in the daytime during the weekdays and taught as a part-time teacher at a language school at weekends.

¹⁸ In Japan, “salaried man” refers to (usually) male career-track white-collar workers, while “office lady” refers to female clerical staff who are normally expected to resign upon marriage or birth of their first child.

In this way, almost all of the teachers had experienced more than one occupation through either career changes or working part-time for more than one workplace at the same time.

b) Reasons for Career Changes in Japan

With regard to the reasons for career changes, many of the teachers confessed that they had not been satisfied with one or more aspects of their previous work in Japan. One of the aspects was dissatisfaction in relation to the conditions of their workplace.

One said, *In the company where I was working, I found some of them [the men] were too chauvinistic.*

Another said, *I was so exhausted every day. I did not have any time to do my own things. I just could not stand it any more. So I resigned from the company.*

During the interviews, I confirmed that dissatisfaction with the previous work in Japan was one of the main push factors for teachers to have changed their career. On the other hand, many indicated more positive reasons (pull factors) for their career change, such as being adventurous or believing that job opportunities were readily available.

One said, *...on the other hand, I just wanted to try new things, being a bit adventurous. I was so easy-going. If I couldn't make it, I would just go home. So I just gave it a go. Why not? That's what I thought when I received an offer [when I was in Japan] from my school here and decided to come to New Zealand to teach. I was not seriously thinking about losing jobs, changing jobs or finding jobs. It was an easy-going way of thinking.*

Another described what she had expected of her teaching job in New Zealand. She said,

I chose New Zealand to teach because I had never been to New Zealand before and I was feeling a bit adventurous about it.

Others indicated that they had not experienced any problems in changing occupations because of the abundance of jobs at that time.

One said, *I got a lot of work opportunities one after another. It was during the time when Japan was in the economic bubble. I kept on being asked to teach at more than one place.*

Another said, *I had no worries. In fact, I went back to Japan once. It was in 1989. It was easy for me to find a job [in Japan]. I quit the job [in Japan] and came back to New Zealand again.*

The other said, *There were many jobs available anytime so I thought that I would be able to get a job again in Japan if I could master how to speak English. If I worked for two years [in New Zealand], I would get good experience and become good at speaking English. After that I would be able to go home without any problem.*

The ideas of these teachers were partly influenced by the economic situation in Japan at that time. They arrived in New Zealand on working holiday visas before the end of 1989 when the economic bubble burst in Japan. When Japan was in the economic bubble, the economy was booming. There were many job opportunities available and people were getting well paid. Due to continuous stability in the economy even after the bubble burst, the economy in Japan continued to grow for at least another couple of years. Thus, employees in Japan at that time had no concern about losing or changing their jobs.

Table 6 shows the unemployment rate in Japan between year 1986 and 2002. It shows that the unemployment rate was low between 1990 and 1992.

Table 6.

The unemployment rate (percentage) in Japan (1986–2002)

'86	'87	'88	'89	'90	'91	'92	'93	'94	'95	'96	'97	'98	'99	2000	'01	'02
2.8	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.4	4.1	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.4

During the decade after the economic bubble burst in Japan, the unemployment rate gradually increased. As a result, the number of unemployed youth increased in Japan, and changes in the life style of young people became the centre of debate in the mass media. Some worked as “freeters” who changed their part-time jobs frequently to make a living and never applied for a permanent job, while others, who are called

“neets,”¹⁹ worked less, stayed at home for longer hours, spending as little as possible on living (see the section “Social Background of Japanese Immigrant Teachers in New Zealand,” Chapter Two). The changes in life styles of the Japanese youth were expressed by some respondents. One of them said,

I used to work as a freeter. When I found a teaching job in New Zealand through people I knew, I immediately gave up work in Japan and decided to come to New Zealand.

In relation to the reasons for career changes in Japan, two main significant reasons were revealed: one was dissatisfaction with work conditions, including gender inequality and long working hours. Another was a sense of choice influenced by the economic situation in Japan at the time. The above can be described as “push factors.” “Pull factors” are explored in Chapter Five (see the section “Expectations of Teaching in New Zealand”).

c) Previous Work Experience in New Zealand

There were various work experiences observed among teachers according to the time that they arrived in New Zealand. Some were restricted to staying in New Zealand for one year or two on a work permit, while others had no restrictions because they had permanent resident status. Those who were on a work visa, such as a working holiday visa, had many restrictions on their length of stay in New Zealand and the types of job available to them. They therefore experienced mainly temporary working positions or jobs on a casual basis. Jobs such as shop assistant, food stall assistant, waiter/waitress, baby-sitter/nanny and seasonal tour guide were common. One said,

I used to work as a tour guide in 1989. ... My job was to show people around at scenic places in New Zealand. Most of the jobs were one-off.

After their work visas expired, some of them went back to Japan, while others applied to have their length of stay extended for a few more months to continue the same job. One respondent described how he went through his early years in New Zealand. He said,

¹⁹ The word “neet” was first used in the United Kingdom and the use of the word has spread to other countries, including Japan, China and Korea. “Neet” is the acronym for “Not currently engaged in Employment, Education or Training.”

I obtained a work visa through a souvenir shop and worked for two years there. I spent another year travelling around, going back and forth. I did sightseeing because I was in the position of not being able to work at that time. ... Well, after my work visa expired, I extended it three more months. ... When I came back to New Zealand, I reentered with a visitor's visa and looked for a job again [to switch to a work visa].

There were others who came/immigrated to New Zealand with no restriction on the length of stay. Some followed their partners for the continuation of their marriage, while others formally immigrated to New Zealand through business immigration or job offers made in advance. Their jobs included shop assistant, waiter/waitress, tour guide, interpreter, translator, private tutor, teaching assistant, counsellor/adviser, self-employed business/retailer, and sales promoter. One of them said,

After I came to New Zealand, I did a bit of tour guiding. Also, I have been looking after the students from Japan as a guardian and an adviser.

The previous jobs that these teachers experienced in New Zealand included both casual and professional jobs. Some worked full-time and changed workplace once or twice, keeping the same occupation. Others went through career changes in a full-time position. There were also others who experienced more than one part-time job at the same time or worked for a short period of time.

d) Reasons for Career Changes in New Zealand

In the late 1980s when New Zealand tourism was booming, there were many tourists and this created more job opportunities for souvenir shop assistants, tour guides, interpreters and translators. There were no restrictions on immigration status of these jobs so that employees did not have to be permanent residents to work in this area.²⁰

One said, When I first arrived in New Zealand on the working holiday scheme and looked for a job, it was easy for me to find one which was related to tourism. There were lots of visitors, especially tourists, from Japan at that time.

The problem with these jobs was that they had no permanency.

²⁰ Under a special scheme introduced in the early 1980s, New Zealand employers, who were unable to find a New Zealand resident being able to perform the task, were able to apply for permission to fill a vacant post with a foreigner with language skills (Wevers, 1988, p.204).

Another said, I used to work as a tour guide and sometimes as a translator or an interpreter at that time. I found that they were not stable jobs. I often had times when I was out of work for a few weeks and during that time I was not paid, of course.

Furthermore these jobs had unsatisfactory work conditions. The jobs were casual, seasonal and irregular, had no opportunities for promotion, and had wages on an hourly rate.

Another said, I knew that I wouldn't be able to survive in New Zealand by continuing working like that.

Therefore, those who had permanent residency started changing their jobs and looking for more permanent jobs such as teaching. Those who had work permits had more job changes. After their work permit expired, they had to go home. After they lived in Japan for a certain period of time, they revisited New Zealand on a visitor's visa or study visa and started looking for a job.

One said, I stayed in New Zealand for one year on the working holiday scheme. I went back to Japan once and worked for a while. Then I came back to New Zealand and went to an English school for one year. I was planning to get a teaching qualification and to become a teacher one day.

If they could find a job, the visa they held could be switched to a work visa; however, the situation was not easy for them. Many of them continued looking for a job or a way to survive while they were studying English or working. Having gone through such experiences, they thought that teaching might be one of the best ways to make a living. Consequently, some successfully found a teaching job, while others decided to obtain a teaching qualification in New Zealand.

In the late 1990s when the economic situation in New Zealand became depressed (in 1999, the employment rate was 7.8 per cent), many cases of redundancy and salary cuts were observed in the tourist industry and many employees experienced pay cuts or lost their jobs. This economic situation affected job availability especially among people on work permits. They had less opportunity to secure a job in the tourist industry. People started to find other ways of making a living such as teaching Japanese.

4. Summary

This chapter described the demographic and background information of the respondents. The majority of the teachers held a university degree obtained from Japan (86.5 per cent). Regardless of holding any other academic qualifications, nearly half of them had a teaching qualification obtained from Japan (48.1 per cent) and/or from New Zealand (46.2 per cent). The reasons for coming to New Zealand were: family reasons, personal reasons, work-related reasons, and economic situation in Japan. The previous work experience that they had in Japan and New Zealand contributed to their choosing to teach Japanese in New Zealand.

CHAPTER FIVE:

FINDING A TEACHING JOB IN NEW ZEALAND

In-depth interviews following the survey resulted in three main themes emerging regarding finding a teaching job in New Zealand. In this chapter, I explore these three themes. Firstly, I analyse interviewees' expectations in relation to the work conditions of teaching in New Zealand. This highlights what made teachers decide on teaching as an occupation. Secondly, I analyse the value teachers put on having teaching qualifications in New Zealand. Lastly, I explore the experiences teachers had finding a teaching job in New Zealand. When exploring each theme, I describe the experiences of participants before comparing these with relevant research.

1. Expectations of Teaching in New Zealand

One of the questions in the survey questionnaire was “What were your expectations for teaching in New Zealand? Please describe what you thought of teaching in New Zealand before you actually started teaching.” During interviews, participants were asked to elaborate on responses in the questionnaire. The majority of participants focused on two main expectations. One was related to the work conditions that they had expected before they applied for a job. Another concerned the classroom conditions that they had expected before they started working as a teacher. In the former, teachers expected that by teaching in New Zealand they would have better work conditions than those in their previous work. In the latter, they expected that the education system in New Zealand would be different from Japan in terms of teaching methods and learning styles.

This section focuses on the expectations regarding work conditions, which are mainly related to the respondents' reasons for choosing a teaching job in New Zealand. These expectations which emerged from the participants' responses include workplace conditions, using previous work experience, the demand for teaching Japanese at school, freedom in teaching subjects, making use of language skills, using teaching to gain permanent residency and other factors that influenced decision-making. The latter expectations are illustrated in Chapter Six (see the section “Teaching in the New Zealand Classroom”).

a) Workplace Conditions

When describing their reasons for choosing to teach in New Zealand, many remarked on their expectation that working conditions in New Zealand would be better than those in Japan. Some of the teachers especially expected that in New Zealand they would work for shorter hours, that females would experience gender equality, and that teaching would give them a steady income. Examples of comments on working hours came from the teachers who had experienced long working hours in Japan.

Masako: Compared to Japan, teachers in New Zealand have longer holidays. In Japan, teachers have to go to school even during the holidays. They are also required to stay after school. Over here, I thought that it would be different.

Others pointed out gender inequality that they had experienced in the workplace in Japan, which had been one of their reasons for choosing a teaching job.

Aiko: ...there were still many companies having different salary rates between males and females in Japan. ... After having gone through various work experiences [in Japan], I had second thoughts. I thought that teaching would work for me.

Lisa: I always wanted to get a job which provides gender equality. Teaching was one of them where male and female teachers can work in an equal position.

On the other hand, from the financial point of view, many expected that teaching would give them a steady income. In particular, those who had experienced working on a casual basis in New Zealand expected that teaching would provide them much better conditions.

Fujiko: ... I was actually looking for a job which would give me regular income.

Masako: From my work experience in New Zealand, compared to casual jobs such as working as a waitress, I thought that teaching would be more stable. Teachers receive a fixed income in the form of a salary. Also they don't easily get fired.

b) Using Previous Work Experience

In addition to the expectations that working conditions in New Zealand would be good, many of the teachers said that the reason they chose teaching in New Zealand

was because of their previous experience in teaching. Those who had teaching experience in Japan remarked that these experiences gave them some confidence²¹ in applying for teaching positions in New Zealand.

Kaori: If I had never taught in Japan before, I would not be able to teach over here, I suppose.

Momoko: Well, in Japan I had taught Japanese as a second language for a long time. I have good experience in teaching. In fact, when I was teaching in Japan, I won the best record in increasing the number of students at my school. Lots of students joined my class one after another. ... I had been working in the educational field and believe that nothing else but teaching is for me.

Experience and enjoyment of teaching encouraged many to look for teaching jobs in New Zealand.

Shin: I found that teaching is very enjoyable. I taught most of the subjects, such as Social Science, English, Japanese and Maths at a cram school in Japan. I have done private tuition as well. I had been teaching since I was a university student. Even now, I still feel like I've just extended my part-time job that I used to do when I was a student.

Saki: I had been thinking of becoming a teacher for a long time. In fact, when I was a university student, I taught English at a cram school for three years. I hold a teaching qualification in English and another foreign language. I enjoy teaching languages very much. ... That's why I chose teaching in New Zealand.

Some teachers, who arrived in New Zealand without teaching experience gained useful experience as volunteers. This enabled them to pursue teaching.

Kyoko: At first, I came to New Zealand to work as an assistant for a local Japanese teacher at secondary school without having any teaching qualifications. I found it interesting to teach in New Zealand and decided to go to the College of Education [for formal training].

Sakura: I came to New Zealand as a Japanese language teaching assistant. I was interested in teaching Japanese in New Zealand. Initially I helped a Kiwi teacher of Japanese [at secondary school]. I learned some teaching methods by

²¹ This is an example which explains what I mentioned in my positional statement in Chapter One—I was born and brought up within Japanese culture. When Kaori and Momoko were describing their teaching experience in Japan, they gave me the impression that they were confident. This was probably due to my interpretation as a Japanese native speaker, having been brought up in Japan where the notion of having experience is often connected with being confident and respectable.

helping her/him. I gradually got much more interested in it and decided to become a qualified teacher one day.

c) The Demand for Teaching Japanese at School

Figure 4 shows the changes in popularity of studying Japanese at secondary school in New Zealand in the years between 1975 and 2005. It indicates that the popularity reached the highest level in the years between 1994 and 1997. After that, the popularity gradually decreased although it slightly increased again in 2003.

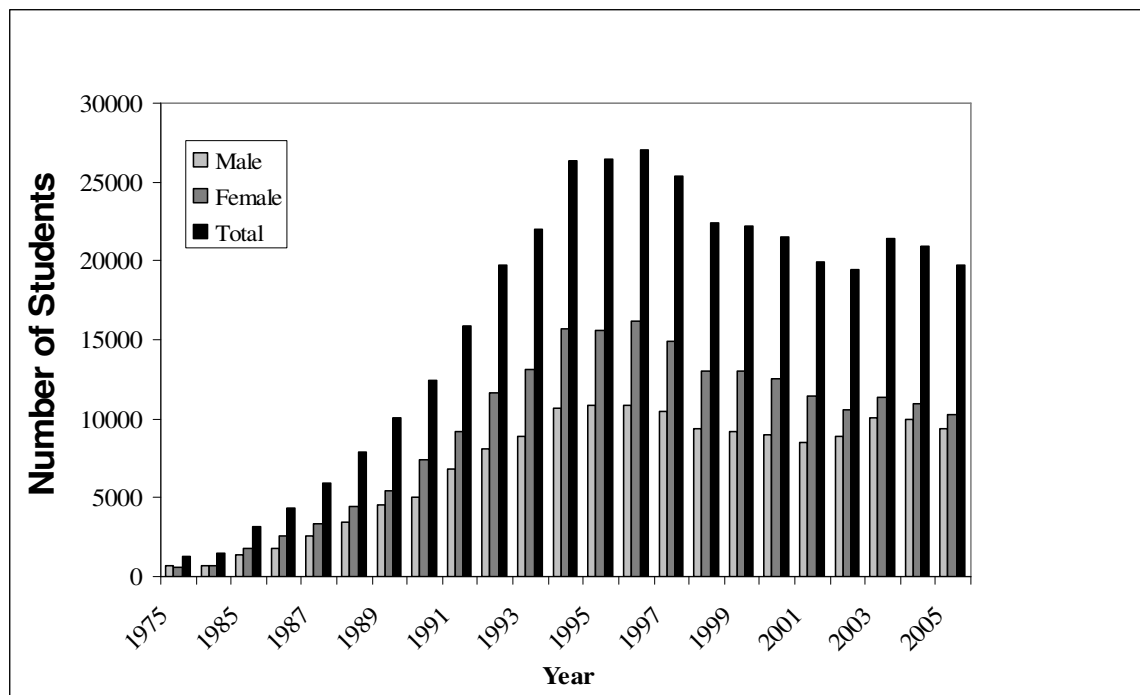


Figure 4. Students studying Japanese at secondary school in New Zealand
(Source: Ministry of Education, Wellington, New Zealand)

Some of the teachers described their expectations of teaching Japanese in New Zealand in relation to the demand for Japanese teachers. What they had expected was supported by the statistics shown in Figure 4. Masako recalled what she had expected of teaching Japanese in New Zealand.

Masako: It was before I actually came to New Zealand when I heard that Japanese was a very popular subject at schools in New Zealand. It was the mid 1990s and I was still in Japan. So I expected that I would have no problem finding a teaching job in New Zealand.

Both Saki and Kyoko came to New Zealand to start teaching in 1998. When they were still in Japan, they were introduced to teaching opportunities by agencies/organisations in Japan.

Saki: I decided to come to New Zealand as a volunteer teacher in 1997. I expected a high demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand when I actually gained the opportunity to come to New Zealand to teach Japanese.

Kyoko: I heard that Japanese education in New Zealand was thriving. ... So I came to New Zealand because I had heard that New Zealand was very active in teaching Japanese.

An example of witnessing the popularity of studying Japanese at schools during the early to mid 1990s came from Kaori.

Kaori: I suppose it was in the late 1980s, many schools started teaching Japanese. After that, the number of students taking Japanese continued to increase. Because of the rapid growth in the student numbers in the 1990s, there became a shortage of Japanese teachers in schools. I heard, for example, that since there was no Japanese teacher, some schools had no alternative but to ask French teachers to act as Japanese teachers. They [French teachers] really could not say “no,” because they might lose their job if they said so. I heard this when I was teaching at [named] school.

As the statistics show, once it reached a peak, the student numbers studying Japanese continued to drop for several years until 2002; then it increased again. Other teachers who started teaching in New Zealand in the years 2003–2005 also remarked that they had expected a high demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools. Noriko, for instance, had received information in Japan regarding the popularity of Japanese education in New Zealand. It was in 2004 when she was selected as a volunteer teacher.

Noriko: Before I came to New Zealand, I was told many times that New Zealand was one of the best countries offering Japanese language education. I also heard that the number of students learning Japanese were very large as well.

A couple of questionnaire respondents also described their expectations regarding the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand.

One wrote, *It was the late 1980s when I first started teaching in New Zealand. I remember that the number of students taking Japanese was larger than I had expected.*

Another wrote, *It was a long time ago, so I don't remember well what I expected. I just had a feeling that Japanese would become very popular in this small country.*

In this way, teachers expected that there would be many opportunities to teach Japanese in New Zealand, and this was the case.

d) Freedom in Teaching Subjects

Some teachers mentioned that they expected freedom in choosing any subject to teach at school. This was in contrast to the situation in Japan where those who want to become a teacher at high school are required to specialise in one subject when they obtain a teaching qualification. They have to sit for the exam in the subject that they choose to teach in the future, in order to get a teaching position at school. With a New Zealand teaching qualification, teachers are free to decide their teaching subjects according to demand when they apply for a job. Jiro and Teru expected freedom of choice in teaching any subjects at secondary school in New Zealand.

Jiro: *Over here, teachers don't necessarily have to specialise in one subject. Having a teaching qualification, they are allowed to teach any subjects, right? ... That's why I ended up becoming a Japanese teacher.*

Teru: *My major subject was not really Japanese. From the beginning, I planned to teach that [named] subject. Japanese was really additional. In fact, I could have taught music as well.*

e) Making Use of Language Skills

A number of respondents recognised that their native ability to speak Japanese would override their need for experience in teaching Japanese.

Kyoko: *I used to teach social science, such as Japanese history and geography at senior high school in Japan. In New Zealand, I wanted to teach Japanese language as a native speaker.*

Emi: *I chose one main subject to teach. Japanese was my second choice. I thought that I would not have any problem about teaching Japanese because I am a native speaker. So I concentrated on the [named] subject all the time.*

Some teachers indicated that they expected no problem in teaching in New Zealand because they had advanced proficiency in speaking English.

Hiroko: Well, in my case, I used to teach English in Japan. ... I am very fluent in English. ..., so I can tell them [students], for example, my stories in English taking not so much time.

Shin: Well, I went to England when I was a student. My major was not English, but...how can I put this? I did not have any problem in communicating with people [in English-speaking countries].

Others expected that they would be able to make good use of their ability to learn foreign languages.

Saki: Well, I like the process of learning a language. I learned a couple of foreign languages for myself and know how to study languages.

Fujiko: I was very fond of learning foreign languages, not only English but also other languages such as French and Chinese. I had been thinking of a job available to me related to languages. ... I was once a language learner and know some of the learning techniques.

f) Using Teaching to Gain Permanent Residency

A few teachers remarked that they chose teaching because it would help them obtain permanent residency in New Zealand.

Jiro: Well, when I applied for permanent residency, I was told that I would not be able to get it working for a souvenir shop. I talked to my Kiwi friend about it. ... When I thought of jobs with which I can use my qualification [obtained from Japan], it had to be something to do with education.

Anzu: I wanted to become an English teacher in Japan. However, when I went back to Japan, I found it difficult to adapt myself back to life in Japan. So I came back to New Zealand, and I thought of working at a Japanese restaurant, but then I realised that I would not be able to get permanent residency with that job. So I became a teacher. I did not plan to become a Japanese teacher from the beginning.

Kazuya: I wanted to get permanent residency in New Zealand. I really liked the lifestyle over here. I wanted to bring up my child in New Zealand. ... Teaching was valued when I applied for permanent residency.

g) Other Expectations

Other expectations were brought up by several teachers in relation to the reasons for choosing to teach in New Zealand. They were family influence, impressions, and getting learning opportunities. Miyoko and Mariko expected that teaching would work best for them because family members were teachers.

Miyoko: In fact, my father was a teacher. I think my career choice was determined by family influence. I had never thought of having any other job but teaching after all, probably because I saw my father teaching many times.

Mariko: Before going to the College of Education, I was just dreaming of teaching Japanese at secondary school in New Zealand. Well, in fact, there are quite a number of teachers in my family. My mother is a teacher, and my uncle, my auntie and my grandmother were all teachers. That's why I thought of myself being cut out to be a teacher as well.

Mariko continued to explain that her teachers had also influenced her career choice.

Mariko: I also found it very enjoyable to go to the English school over here. My English teachers were all very motivated to teach us. The image of a good teacher came to mind and I really wanted to teach New Zealand children. I could not see the down sides in teaching at all.

These views support theories of career development where social learning, that is learning from parents, family or teachers influence the career outcomes for people.

A couple of teachers expected that teaching would broaden their views and opportunities.

Aiko: I believe that teaching is learning. Therefore, I expected that I could learn through teaching my students, which would benefit both of us.

Lisa: I expected that teaching would give me some opportunities to meet other teachers and students in New Zealand, which I believed would widen my view and increase my learning opportunities.

h) Comparison with Relevant Research

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate expectations of teaching, and motivations for choosing to teach as a career, in various countries (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006; Manuela and Hughes, 2006; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant,

2003; Reid and Caudwell, 1997). Kyriacou and Koberi (1998) suggest that the main findings of these studies would be applicable to a wide variety of countries, although some differences in motivations might exist due to different social and cultural contexts.

One of the studies on motivations for becoming secondary teachers in England found that various “pull and push” factors had influenced career-changers’ decisions to become teachers (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003). The main push factor was dissatisfaction with having had insecure working conditions, while the main pull factor was the perception of respondents regarding the conditions of teaching, such as stability, security and better long-term prospects. One salient reason for choosing to teach was also that the respondents wanted to use specialist subject knowledge. The main reasons found in other studies included ‘enjoyment of teaching,’ ‘teaching is rewarding,’ ‘having long holidays and ideal working hours,’ ‘wanting to share the knowledge with others,’ and ‘having few other job opportunities’ (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Manuela and Hughes, 2006; Reid and Caudwell, 1997).

My participant Japanese native speaker teachers were also career changers (this includes changing the subject that they teach) and their main expectations and motivations for choosing teaching in New Zealand were similar to the findings of other studies. For instance, most of my participants emphasised the importance of having a secure job. In addition to the expected preferred working conditions in teaching such as ‘working hours,’ ‘long holidays,’ ‘steady income,’ and ‘gender equality,’ they also expected to have ‘enjoyment of teaching.’ Other reasons such as ‘using previous teaching experience,’ and ‘making use of language skills’ were also similar to the salient reason: ‘wanting to use specialist subject knowledge.’ My research findings therefore support the view of Kyriacou and Koberi (1998) that their main findings would be applicable to a wide variety of countries.

Other particular reasons found among my participants teachers included ‘the demand for teaching Japanese at school,’ ‘freedom in teaching subjects,’ and ‘using teaching to gain permanent residency.’ These reasons perhaps worked as strong pull factors that influenced my participant teachers’ decisions to become teachers. On the other hand, my findings also revealed various push factors that influenced my participants’

decisions to choose to teach in New Zealand (see the section “Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes,” Chapter Four).

The initial push factors that influenced my participants’ decisions to come to New Zealand were dissatisfaction with previous jobs and the economic bubble in Japan. After coming to New Zealand they experienced jobs that had only insecure working conditions. When they looked for other job opportunities which would give them more secure working conditions, they found that teaching would suit them. The main push factors that influenced my participants to choose to teach in New Zealand were therefore dissatisfaction with previous jobs and having few other job opportunities, which were found to be similar to previous findings (e.g., Reid and Caudwell, 1997). However, my findings revealed that my participants’ expectations and motivations were particular in some respects (for example, ‘the demand for teaching Japanese at school,’ and ‘using teaching to gain permanent residency’) because they had been involved in the changes in the social and economic situations in both countries, and they faced various exigencies in which they needed to make career decisions.

In relation to the process of decision-making in career development, a number of theorists suggest that individuals need to understand their own traits and competences and to gain factual knowledge of jobs and the labour market to make good career decisions (see the section “Trait-Factor Theory in Career Development,” Chapter Two). In their theories, matching traits and factors is recommended. My participant Japanese native speaker teachers went through various work experiences (see the section “Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes,” Chapter Four) where they not only learned to understand their own traits and competences but also determined the work conditions that would most suit them. Their experiences support the career development theories which state that matching these is ideal (e.g., Parsons, 1909). Some other career development theories are also supported by the expectations of my participants.

Bandura’s (1977; 1997) self-efficacy theory postulates that the belief concerning one’s capability is an influential determinant for utilising one’s behavioural competencies. His theory implies that the confidence in one’s ability initiates the process of career activities. My participant teachers demonstrated that they believed

in their competence to be a teacher in New Zealand through their teaching experiences in Japan and other attributed factors, such as the ability to speak English and the skill of teaching foreign languages.

In social learning theory in career decision-making, Krumboltz (1994) emphasises the concept of learning. He proposes that through learning experiences, people acquire their preferences for a variety of activities and beliefs about themselves, and take action with their acquired skills. My participants demonstrated that they acquired their preferences in career choice and made a career-decision to become a teacher. They recognised important reasons to choose teaching through their prior learning experiences.

Furthermore, the social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996) is relevant in considering the contextual influences on my participants. This theory highlights the interplay between cognitive-person variables (for example, self-efficacy) and other aspects of the person (for example, one's behaviour, gender, ethnicity, barriers/support system). In this theory, the contextual factors (that is, education, learning experience, family, peers, the labour market, and unplanned events) are significant factors influencing career development (Brown and Lent, 1996; Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 2000). My participant teachers were largely influenced by contextual factors, such as learning experience, family, peers, and labour market to make their career choices. There were, however, some contextual factors not previously mentioned in research that influenced participants' career decisions. These included valuing the New Zealand systems, having their own cultural values respected, and the economic situations in both countries.

The systems theory approach provides a framework in which the dynamic interactions between the individual and the various systemic influences (for example, historical, social, political, economic, cultural, and organisational influences) take place. It highlights the recursive nature of interaction within and between these systems in the process of influence. The role of past, present and future influences in the career decision-making, broader change processes, and the influence of chance are also taken into account. This systems theory framework helps explain how the individual participants have different patterns of career development reflected in the changes that

they experienced in Japan and New Zealand. These different influences experienced by my participant Japanese native speaker teachers included: family influences (for example, having a New Zealand partner), the individual needs (for example, gaining permanent residency), and the employment market (for example, the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools). In the systems theory framework, environmental/societal system influences have profound effects on individuals who live within a broader system. Many of my participants witnessed the high demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools and obtained teaching positions at times of high employment in teaching Japanese in New Zealand. While their decision to become a teacher in New Zealand was influenced by these environmental/societal system influences, the beliefs (for example, having high level of language and teaching skills) and values (for example, high prestige and compensation for teachers in Japan) in the individual systems appeared to have pushed them towards making a decision for becoming a teacher in New Zealand (see the section “Positioning of Teachers” in Chapter Six for the detail of the teachers’ social status in Japan).

The following section discusses the next step that teachers required to become a teacher in New Zealand. Most of my participant teachers emphasised the importance of having a teaching qualification and provided two main reasons to explain the value of the qualification in finding a teaching job in New Zealand.

2. Teaching Qualifications

While many of the teachers held teaching qualifications obtained from Japan and had previous teaching experience, many of them expected that they would need to obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification to work as a teacher in New Zealand. They emphasised that it was essential to have a New Zealand teaching qualification for two main purposes. One was to get a job and another was to learn the New Zealand education system.

a) The Use of Teaching Qualifications

The majority of teachers in the present research remarked that having a teaching qualification became important and necessary especially when they applied for a teaching job.

Fujiko: ... *Having a New Zealand teaching qualification is necessary if you want to teach at school in New Zealand because it is now compulsory to have it to become a teacher.*

Kazuya: *I expect that it is important to hold a teaching qualification when you apply for a teaching position, but for teaching itself, I don't think that it is so important.*

Although at present most schools employ only those who hold a New Zealand teaching qualification, this was not always the case in the past. Some teachers who came to New Zealand in the early 1990s confessed that they had transferred their teaching qualifications obtained from Japan into New Zealand teaching qualifications with the approval of NZQA (New Zealand Qualification Authority).

Mika: *I only had a teaching qualification obtained from Japan at that time. I did not obtain a teaching qualification over here, but I was approved as a qualified teacher through NZQA. I was able to transfer my qualification just like reissuing a driver's license.*

By the mid 1990s, many schools had set restrictions in employment conditions, such that they would employ only those who hold a New Zealand teaching qualification. This accelerated the number of Japanese people who decided to obtain a teaching qualification in New Zealand.

Mariko: *I was told by one of the teachers at English school that I must go to the College of Education if I wanted to become a teacher. I also found that my teaching qualification obtained from Japan didn't apply over here.*

Masako: *I thought it would make it easier for me to do my job hunting if I had a New Zealand Diploma of Teaching. So I went to the College of Education.*

b) Learning the Education System in New Zealand

Some teachers emphasised that it was important to have a teaching qualification in order to apply for a teaching position and work as a teacher in New Zealand. Additionally, others believed that the courses that they would attend to obtain a New Zealand qualification would give them valuable learning opportunities to find out about the education system in New Zealand. For instance, in New Zealand there is a system called NCEA (National Certificate of Educational Achievement) which is administered by the New Zealand Qualification Authority (NZQA). NCEA is the

main national qualification for secondary school level students attending New Zealand high schools which is recognised not only in New Zealand but also by overseas employers and universities. It involves internal assessments during the academic year as well as end-of-year external examinations and usually commences when a student is in Year 11. It may be continued through to the end of a student's high school career, when NCEA can be used for University Entrance.

Most of the teachers noted that there were significant differences between Japan and New Zealand in the education system, including pedagogical practices. They stressed that, therefore, it was essential to learn the New Zealand education system regarding the school syllabus, teaching styles and its methods before they started teaching as beginner teachers. A couple of teachers gave some examples that had made them realise the importance of understanding education in New Zealand to work as a teacher.

Yurie: I have worked with different kinds of teaching assistants from Japan. I found that many of them were not familiar with the education system in New Zealand. I had to explain to them what to do most of the time. I spent a lot of time explaining.

Kaori: I have observed some people who believe that they can teach Japanese just because they are Japanese native speakers. I felt that this idea would not work. I think it is necessary for us to learn about New Zealand education first.

While teachers described what they had found through observations, they emphasised the importance of obtaining a teaching qualification. They also remarked that they had learnt about education in New Zealand by attending training courses and through their own teaching experiences. Some of the teachers pointed out the differences in education between Japan and New Zealand, and explained why they placed so much emphasis on the importance of learning the New Zealand education system.

Kyoko: I think it is important to get a teaching qualification for those who have not received education in New Zealand but want to teach over here because the education system in New Zealand is totally different from in Japan. Not only is the way that the school runs completely different, but also the relationship between students and teachers is different. There were heaps of things that I had to learn through my teaching.

Ayame: From my point of view and my own teaching experience, it is important to learn how to teach in New Zealand. The way of teaching in New Zealand is very different from in Japan. What we know about teaching is from the experience of being taught at school in Japan, especially for those who have never worked as a teacher before. It is absolutely impossible to try to teach in New Zealand with only the experience of being taught in Japan. Students in New Zealand are different. If you try to teach in the Japanese way of teaching in New Zealand, you will get trouble right away.

On the other hand, other teachers pointed out the differences in teaching between juniors and seniors. Teachers interviewed in the present research often used the terms “juniors” and “seniors” to distinguish between the students in Years 9 and 10 (“juniors”), and the students in Years 11, 12 and 13 (“seniors”) who are required to sit for the NCEA exams. They explained how teaching qualifications would affect the way they teach.

Anzu: I believe that it is necessary for us to have a teaching qualification to teach juniors. Through getting a teaching qualification, we learn the know-how and strategies for controlling the classroom. On the other hand, I think that it is important for us to have a degree so that we can meet the needs of seniors with the knowledge and ability that we gained from University.

Furthermore, they recommended some of the ways to obtain teaching qualifications.

Yurie: I do recommend taking a course to get a teaching qualification at the College of Education or university. I believe that those people who have the New Zealand qualification can teach better in New Zealand.

Ayame: ... So I think it is important to go to the College of Education to learn the ways of teaching.

Kaori: I have heard that younger people tend to get a Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language from the University. I bet there are some people with this Diploma. It has been a popular one recently.

Many of the teachers believed that obtaining a New Zealand teaching qualification is necessary to get a teaching job in New Zealand. They also found it important to obtain a teaching qualification for the purpose of learning the New Zealand education system to fit into teaching in New Zealand schools. These findings indicated that obtaining a New Zealand teaching qualification helped the teachers interviewed to get

a teaching position in New Zealand and adapt themselves to teaching in New Zealand schools.

c) How This Theme Relates to the Literature

In the life span theory, Super (1957) suggests that life stages do not necessarily follow according to chronological age: rather, stages may change depending on the individual because one's values change through one's life time. People may therefore reassess their career requirements and opportunities at any stage to change their career according to current values. In the present study, I found that my participant teachers had gone through this "recycling" stage (Super, 1990) a few times. They had reassessed their career requirements and decided to change their job in Japan and New Zealand (see the section "Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes," Chapter Four). After they arrived in New Zealand, many of them recognised the importance of having a New Zealand teaching qualification to work as a teacher in New Zealand. Regardless of having a teaching qualification obtained in Japan, nearly half of my participant teachers (46.2 per cent) endeavoured to obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification (see Table 2, Chapter Four). Because such a high percentage of teachers studied to obtain additional New Zealand qualifications, including not only a teaching qualification but also undergraduate and postgraduate degrees (see Table 3, Chapter Four), it is quite clear that immigration returned them to an earlier career state. Super's concept of recycling is pertinent as it helps make sense of the fact that immigrant teachers may go through several life stage changes in order to live and work in a new country.

3. Applying for a Teaching Position

Having obtained New Zealand teaching qualifications, many of the teachers looked for a job in New Zealand. In the present research, the majority of teachers found their teaching jobs through media such as advertisements in magazines and the newspapers, and through personal contacts with other people. Teaching job opportunities were also influenced by the demand for teaching Japanese at school, which was significantly related to the economic situation in New Zealand.

a) Finding a Teaching Job

During the interviews, teachers described ways in which they had found their teaching jobs. Most of the teachers mentioned that they had looked for job vacancies in the educational gazette and the newspapers. Some of them also looked for teaching vacancies on the internet.

Jiro: [When I looked for a teaching job,] *I looked in the magazine called "Educational Gazette" where you can find advertisements for teaching vacancies. I also looked at the [named] newspaper. ... Well, for my first teaching position, I found it in the Educational Gazette.*

Most teachers described the importance of having curriculum vitae (CV) to send to schools in the targeted areas.

Jiro: *I sent my CV to some secondary schools in a [named] city in New Zealand. There were some teachers who knew me at those schools, and they contacted me by phone. And I got a position through kind of word-of-mouth.*

Miyoko: *At that time, I did not look for any advertisement for teaching vacancies. I sent my CV with a letter to the school where one of my friends was studying Japanese. I received a reply from the school saying that they would let me know if a position became available. Two years later, they contacted me to say that one of the positions had become vacant.*

For some teachers, volunteering created opportunities.

Masako: *Initially I was teaching as a volunteer. My position was just like a teaching assistant. And then the real position became available after having taught as a volunteer for only half a year. I applied for it and started working for two to four hours a week.*

Others remarked that they were introduced to teaching positions by people they had known. They indicated that it could have been more difficult for them to find a job without assistance from those people.

Masako: *I found both my present and previous positions through one of my classmates at the College of Education. ... If you come to New Zealand for the first time, and if you do not know anybody, it would be very hard to get a job even though you try very hard, despite good teaching experience from Japan.*

Ayame: When I came to New Zealand for the first time, I became fond of New Zealand very much. ... And I thought of coming back to New Zealand one day. But if I wanted to come back to New Zealand, I needed a job. ... So [before I left New Zealand] I let everyone know, saying to them, "I will definitely be coming back, so please look out for a job for me." There was someone who found a job for me later.

A few teachers mentioned that they experienced being accepted before the targeted position was advertised. In these cases, teachers had personal contacts with people who were related to schools.

Ayame: On the fourth year of my teaching in New Zealand, one of my friends found a teaching vacancy in the newspaper and let me know. ... I heard that a Japanese teacher at the school resigned suddenly in September. ... And the school started panicking... So the school asked a retired teacher and a correspondence teacher to take turns to teach Japanese. One day, the correspondence teacher met one of my friends, and asked, "Do you know anybody?" Then she introduced the teaching position to me, while the correspondence teacher told the school. Later, I received a phone call from the school asking me to have a job interview. I think it was before the school actually put an advertisement in the newspaper. In fact, at that stage, I had already been told that the position would be offered to me. I heard later that there were many applicants for that advertised position.

Another confessed that she was directly asked by the principal to work for the school.

Yurie: In my case, I was offered a teaching position at the school where I taught during my teaching training section. The principal directly asked me before the school advertised the vacancy, so I applied for it.

Behind the scenes, a couple of teachers applied for a teaching position knowing that the position had been already taken up by others.

Masako: There was a vacancy [at the school where I wanted to teach] in 2000 and I applied for the position. But then I was told that the position was not really vacant. There was already a Japanese teacher working for that position and it was time for him/her to renew the contract. That's why they had to announce it to the public. I talked to a receptionist in the school office, who advised me to apply for it anyway just in case, and I did. But, as I had expected, I did not get the position.

On the other hand, several teachers explained how they had found a teaching position at a New Zealand school from Japan.

Saki: There was a “Japanese Teachers Dispatch Group” and I joined the group. During the time when I was taking a course [to be a qualified teacher of Japanese as a second language] in Japan, I found that the group was looking for someone who wanted to work as a teaching assistant in New Zealand. So I applied for it.

Chiharu: My mother has been running an agency in Japan where I met a school principal visiting from New Zealand. He was in Japan for a week, looking for international students to join his school for a kind of promotion. During his stay, I helped him as an interpreter. Towards the end of his stay, he told me about the vacancy at his school and asked me to join his school as a Japanese teacher.

The successful strategies used by participants to find a job were advertisements, sending their CV, talking to others and volunteering. Although advertisements helped teachers find job vacancies, most of the teachers found teaching positions through personal contacts with other people who were related to a school in various ways.

Previous research findings on job search methods and process showed that the use of informal sources was more effective for finding a job (Silliker, 1993) and that the use of formal job sources was positively related to finding a job in high-level occupations (Allen and Keaveny, 1980). In contrast, recent research outcomes indicated that job seekers who used informal sources were less likely to find employment and that the use of informal sources was negatively related to employment status (Saks, 2006). Thus, there is no conclusive evidence as to which job search methods are more effective than others. What has been suggested is that the use of a more or greater number of job search methods should result in more job opportunities and employment (Saks, 2006). In addition, recent research findings have shown that job search intensity such as the frequency and amount of time that job seekers spend on search activities was significantly related to job search outcomes (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001).

My Japanese participant teachers found a teaching job mainly from informal sources such as word-of-mouth. While they spent some time using search activities to approach formal sources (for example, replying to advertisements), they used

informal search methods, including sending their CV to many schools, visiting schools to find vacancies, and talking to other people. In this way, my participant teachers tended to use multiple approaches to find a teaching position, and therefore the amount of time that they spent was mainly determined by the number of search methods that they used. My participants also demonstrated that they spent a large amount of time to gain successful job search outcomes. These findings therefore supported Saks' (2006) hypothesis and Kanfer et al.'s (2001) findings.

My findings also demonstrated that contextual supports played an important role in finding teaching positions. This finding is similar to previous research (e.g., Lent et al., 2002) that identified the importance of the role of perceived contextual supports and barriers in relation to choice goals. In addition, my participant teachers were exposed to many different occasions in the two countries in which they had explored their job opportunities for themselves and took advantage of chance events when an appropriate opportunity arrived. In this respect, my findings support the planned happenstance theory (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999). Furthermore, it is quite clear that other factors—availability of targeted jobs in relation to the economic situation—also influenced the success of my participant teachers' job attainment.

b) Job Opportunities for Teaching Japanese

During the interviews, some of the teachers indicated that the availability of teaching positions in Japanese was significantly related to the socio-economic situation. Those who applied for a teaching position in the late 1980s asserted that they had found plenty of teaching opportunities available in schools at that time.

Fujiko: When New Zealand and Australia were booming in tourism, there was quite a number of tourists visiting New Zealand in the late 1980s. Due to the stronger relationship between Japan and New Zealand through tourism and trade, various schools started offering Japanese in New Zealand. I heard, at that time, that there had been more Japanese teaching positions created in schools.

The increase in the number of Japanese tourists visiting New Zealand had influenced many schools in such a way that Japanese became one of the optional subjects that was introduced into the curriculum.

Table 7 shows the number of students studying Japanese at secondary school in New Zealand and the number of secondary schools offering Japanese as a subject between 1975 and 2005. As many of the teachers interviewed had witnessed, the demand for teaching Japanese as a subject started to increase in the late 1980s. The increase in the student numbers taking Japanese continued until the peak in popularity in the year of 1995 when 12.01 per cent of the national population enrolled in secondary school was studying Japanese. The number of schools offering Japanese as a subject, on the other hand, reached 278 in 1998 when the total number of secondary schools was 343. It continued to fluctuate until it reached a peak in 2003 when 290 out of 343 (84.5 per

Table 7.

Number and percentage of students studying Japanese at secondary school
and number of secondary schools offering Japanese as a subject

National roll		Students studying Japanese				School total numbers	Schools offering Japanese
Year	n	Male	Female	Total	Percentage	n	n
1975	219,754	689	619	1,305	0.59%		No record
1980	226,754	705	737	1,442	0.64%	336	No record
1985	230,970	1405	1794	3,199	1.39%	337	No record
1986	231,012	1,802	2,547	4,349	1.88%	336	No record
1987	232,307	2,523	3,398	5,921	2.55%	334	No record
1988	234,000	3,416	4,452	7,868	3.36%	334	No record
1989	233,843	4,571	5,468	10,039	4.29%	333	109
1990	230,156	5,017	7,425	12,442	5.41%	334	145
1991	228,689	6,766	9,155	15,921	6.96%	335	173
1992	227,912	8,082	11,656	19,738	8.66%	338	204
1993	223,787	8,840	13,151	21,991	9.83%	339	214
1994	222,095	10,632	15,669	26,301	11.84%	335	236
1995	220,470	10,891	15,595	26,486	12.01%	336	252
1996	238,104	10,868	16,171	27,039	11.36%	339	264
1997	240,417	10,497	14,902	25,399	10.56%	338	275
1998	245,315	9,363	13,013	22,376	9.12%	343	278
1999	246,213	9,136	13,019	22,155	9.00%	335	264
2000	245,528	9,018	12,511	21,529	8.77%	336	263
2001	249,866	8,533	11,448	19,981	8.00%	336	258
2002	259,660	8,882	10,518	19,400	7.47%	332	247
2003	268,849	10,072	11,377	21,449	7.98%	343	290
2004	276,583	9,958	10,970	20,928	7.57%	352	257
2005	277,666	9,418	10,271	19,689	7.09%	352	247

Source: Education Statistics of New Zealand, Data Management and Analysis Division, Ministry of Education, Wellington, New Zealand

cent) secondary schools offered Japanese. Regardless of the number of students enrolled in Japanese, most of the secondary schools continue to offer Japanese. This high proportion of secondary schools offering Japanese allows for job opportunities for teachers of Japanese language, greatly disproportionate to the relatively small numbers who learn the subject.

Due to the increase in the demand for teaching Japanese in schools, many teachers in this research found a teaching job without any difficulties. During the time when the demand was highest, most of them found a teaching position on their first job search.

Fujiko: On my first job hunting, I found a teaching job. I applied for only one teaching position. At that time, the demand for Japanese studies was increasing because of the economic situation in New Zealand which was influenced by the relationship between New Zealand and Japan. I thought that it was really good timing for me.

Shin: I first came to New Zealand in 1985 to find out about New Zealand schools. ... I applied for several teaching positions for the first time by writing a letter in 1988 and received good responses in 1989 from all of the schools that I had applied to. They contacted me to inform me that they would accept me as a teacher right away.

Both Fujiko and Shin had no New Zealand teaching qualifications at that time when they applied for a teaching position in New Zealand. Fujiko had just finished her one-year correspondence course offered in Japan to be a qualified Japanese language teacher. Shin held a teaching qualification obtained from Japan. Even without holding a New Zealand teaching qualification, both were welcomed by schools. When the demand for teaching Japanese was high, the individual's immigration entry status was also no barrier. Schools were able to support the applicants to get a working visa for them to work as teachers.

As the demand for teaching Japanese started to decrease in 1998 (see also Figure 4 shown in the section "The Demand for Teaching Japanese at School" in this chapter), those teachers who arrived in New Zealand after 1998 found the demand for Japanese teaching positions less than expected. For example, Kyoko, who came to teach as a volunteer in New Zealand in 1997 and obtained a New Zealand teaching qualification in 1999, experienced difficulty in finding a teaching position.

Kyoko: Having worked as a volunteer teaching assistant in New Zealand for a year, I went to the College of Education to get a teaching diploma in 1999. After that, I applied for several teaching positions, but could not find any. So I had to go home to Japan for a time.

This section indicated that job search success was largely influenced by the demand for teaching Japanese. The economic situation in New Zealand in connection with the relationship between New Zealand and Japan was also a significant factor that influenced the job search success of my participant Japanese teachers. The next section introduces how economic changes affected job prospects of Japanese native speaker teachers.

c) The Effects of Reduced Demand for Teaching Japanese

During the time between the late 1980s and mid 1990s, Japanese was popular as one of the optional subjects at schools in New Zealand. Japanese teachers specialised in only Japanese as a full-time teacher because the number of students taking Japanese was large. However, some teachers were later asked to switch to a part-time position because of the gradual decrease in the number of students taking Japanese (see Figure 4 and Table 7 in this chapter). Others continued to work as a full-time teacher but started to get involved in teaching other subjects or working in other areas such as looking after international students.

Saki: I was working as a full-time Japanese teacher at my school. At the moment I am teaching Japanese for nineteen hours and also working for nine hours to look after international students. There are about fifty international students from various countries, such as Japan, China, Korea, Hong Kong, Germany, Switzerland and Canada. As part of my job, for example, I organise home stays for Japanese students.

As the demand for teaching Japanese at school gradually decreased, teachers became required to have more than a teaching qualification. Compared to the time when teachers used to teach only Japanese because Japanese language studies were in high demand in schools, they gradually found it harder to survive as a full-time Japanese teacher.

Kaori: Especially in the case of Japanese native speaker teachers, most of them can teach only Japanese and do not teach other subjects, which makes it much harder to get full-time employment.

Consequently, the changes in the employment conditions set by schools in accordance with the changes in the economic situation in New Zealand gradually generated awareness of the requirements for people who wanted to be a teacher in New Zealand. Some teachers started to appeal to schools saying that they could teach subjects other than Japanese.

Emi: I really wanted to get a teaching job in New Zealand, so I worked more on my other area. ... I thought I would be able to get a job by appealing [to prospective employers] that I am able to teach more than one subject including Japanese.

Teru: My major subject that I targeted for teaching at a New Zealand school was not Japanese. Because of being a Japanese native speaker, I thought that teaching Japanese as a subject would be a strength or backup when I applied for a job. Because most schools look for teachers who can teach more than one subject, I thought that it was fortunate to be a Japanese native speaker. I just needed to concentrate on one major subject other than Japanese to find a job.

Teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools is no longer in quite such high demand. Japanese teachers therefore need to prepare for teaching more than one subject to survive as teachers in New Zealand when they obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification.

In the lifecareer process theory, Miller-Tiedeman (1987) explains that life and career are totally related to each other in light of one's experiences, intelligence and intuition. She suggests that individuals need to trust themselves with their experiences and intellectual ability, while being flexible and open to new career paths. She emphasised the importance of finding the right life, valuing individual abilities, having control over career outcomes. The findings of the present research showed that my participant teachers were flexible and prepared for their job hunting according to the changes in the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools. In this sense, Miller-Tiedeman's theory is pertinent to understand the job search behaviour of Japanese native speaker teachers.

4. Summary

This chapter examined the process of finding a teaching job in New Zealand that Japanese native speaker teachers had experienced. The first section explored their

expectations and motivations for choosing teaching in New Zealand. The findings showed that various pull and push factors had influenced my participants' decisions to become a teacher. Their reasons to choose teaching in New Zealand such as 'enjoyment of teaching' and 'steady income' worked as pull factors,' whereas 'dissatisfaction with previous jobs' and 'having few other job opportunities' worked as push factors. These findings were similar to other research and therefore supported the view of Kyriacou and Kobori (1998) that people respond to push and pull factors when making a career change to teaching. The findings also revealed that other expectations and motivations particular to my participants (for example, 'the demand for teaching Japanese at school,' and 'using teaching to gain permanent residency') influenced their career change.

My findings also supported a number of career development theories. My participants determined the work conditions that most suited them (trait-factor theory); they believed in their competence to become a teacher in New Zealand (Bandura's self-efficacy theory); and their career choices were influenced by contextual factors such as learning experience, family, peers, the labour market, and unplanned events (Krumboltz's social learning theory in career decision-making; Lent, Brown, and Hackett's social cognitive career theory). The experiences of my participant teachers in career development were also considered according to the recursiveness (that is, the multitude of influences in the relationships between all systems) discussed in the systems theory framework. My participants revealed the individual pattern of career development, which was especially influenced by the environmental/societal systems and the individual systems as well as the changes experienced.

The second section discussed the importance of having a New Zealand teaching qualification to teach in New Zealand. My participants cited two main reasons: one was to get a teaching position and the other was to learn the New Zealand education system. Nearly half of my participant teachers (46.2 per cent) endeavoured to obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification in the present research. These findings indicated that immigration returned my participants to an earlier career state. Super's (1990) concept of recycling is therefore pertinent to understand that immigrant teachers may go through several life stage changes in order to live and work in a new country.

The last section explored the experiences of teachers in finding a teaching position in New Zealand. Most of my participants found teaching vacancies through media, but they were more likely to get a job through personal contacts with other people. My findings supported the hypothesis that the use of a more or greater number of job search methods should result in more job opportunities and employment (Saks, 2006) and that job search intensity such as the frequency and amount of time that job seekers spend on search activities was significantly related to job search outcomes (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001).

CHAPTER SIX: STARTING AS A TEACHER

This chapter elucidates common difficulties experienced by the teachers interviewed. The initial experiences of teaching in the New Zealand classroom are described with reference to the differences of the education system between Japan and New Zealand. Then common difficulties encountered by the teachers are explored.

1. Teaching in the New Zealand Classroom

When participants began teaching in New Zealand, they experienced major differences in classroom practices in curriculum foci. They described these experiences in terms of the expected differences and experienced differences.

a) Expected Differences in the Education System between Japan and New Zealand

Most of the teachers expected to find the New Zealand classroom different. They said that their expectations had been formed through sources such as what they had heard, observed, learnt as a student or experienced as parents. They anticipated differences in pedagogical practices between the two countries.

Several teachers described what they had expected regarding the New Zealand classroom in comparison with the classroom in Japan.

Hiroko: The students in Japan are passive but I expected that the students in New Zealand would spontaneously participate in the activities in class. I thought that the New Zealand education system would give students actual participation in class, preventing them from being passive.

Yurie: I thought that the way of teaching in New Zealand must be different from in Japan. I expected that the students in New Zealand would not just stay seated during the class time, not like in Japan.

Kazuya: I knew that I would need to use a more communicative approach in New Zealand than in Japan. I expected that good classroom management skills would be necessary in the classroom.

Some of the teachers particularly referred to class sizes, which may affect the conditions in the classroom, and the relationships between teachers and students. Saki described what she had expected concerning teaching a small class:

Saki: In Japan the number of students in one class is thirty to forty, whereas in New Zealand I found they often have small-size classes, so I thought I would be able to deliver more interactive lessons. I thought there was a big difference in the ways of teaching because of the difference in students' numbers in class. I thought that I could become closer to our students in New Zealand.

In addition to having a small class, Shin explained what kind of class he had expected to be in charge of to teach Japanese.

Shin: I expected to be teaching a small number of children. I knew that Japanese was an optional subject and that therefore not all of the students would be participating in Japanese classes. It is not a core subject but an optional one. ... I thought that the students who choose Japanese would be the ones with positive attitudes and that they would be more likely to be motivated to learn languages such as Japanese or German.

While some talked about the positive side of their expectations, including having motivated students and closer contact with students, others expressed some concerns. One of the main concerns was the language of instruction. Some of the questionnaire respondents also described their concerns regarding classroom management in New Zealand.

One wrote, I was initially concerned that I needed to speak English all the time in the classroom.

Another wrote, I heard that the students in New Zealand are "cheeky" and that classroom management would be much harder. I was therefore very much concerned about classroom management.

b) Expectations as a Japanese Native Speaker Teacher

As part of the expectations for teaching Japanese, some of the teachers remarked that they had expected their contribution to Japanese education in New Zealand would be as a native speaker.

Momoko: *I expected that I would be able to teach something as a native speaker teacher. Well, I believe that native speaker teachers can help teach something*

Noriko: *I wanted to contribute to teaching Japanese in New Zealand. I wanted to help more people to understand the culture of Japan.*

One of the questionnaire respondents also described his/her expectation as a Japanese native speaker teacher.

One wrote, *I felt responsible for being the sole Japanese native speaker teacher in a small town, as my students would learn Japanese through my teaching alone.*

Both positive and negative expectations were revealed in relation to teaching in the New Zealand classroom. These expectations were related to the differences in pedagogical practices between Japan and New Zealand, including teaching methods and learning styles, class sizes, and communication with the students. Some teachers also expressed their expectations as a Japanese native speaker teacher as described above. These expectations of my participant teachers are similar to the most common reason for choosing to teach which was identified by New Zealand trainee teachers: the desire to work in an area that “makes a real contribution to society” by making a difference to learning and life chances of the next generation (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006). The findings of the New Zealand study also revealed that although some New Zealand teachers perceived lower status of teaching, they chose teaching for a number of reasons (for example, influence of family members). The perception of teaching in New Zealand, however, appears to be somewhat different from that of teaching in Japan. The difference in perception between New Zealand and Japan is explored in the section “Classroom Management” in this chapter. The next section reveals what they actually found through their teaching, which might have been different from what they had expected.

2. Initial Discoveries Made When Working in New Zealand Schools

Many of the teachers remarked that once they started teaching in New Zealand they discovered new aspects of teaching, in addition to having confirmed what they had expected. Their first findings included mainly the differences in the education system between Japan and New Zealand. Some described what they had discovered during

the practical teacher training section, while others explained what they had experienced as a beginning teacher.

a) Differences in Curriculum Resources

One of the first discoveries in New Zealand schools involved a comparison between Japan and New Zealand in relation to curriculum resources. The secondary school system in New Zealand is very different from in Japan. In Japan, the secondary school system is strongly guided by the Ministry of Education²² in every aspect of teaching. For example, the Ministry approves certain publishing companies to provide teaching resources for each subject of the curriculum. The Ministry also prescribes and proscribes set texts and related teaching materials for all subjects at all levels. Teachers are permitted to teach using only the approved resources including the teachers' manuals. Likewise, the Ministry sets the timetable and allocation of teaching hours within the curriculum at all schools. This contrasts greatly with the freedom accorded to teachers within the New Zealand education system and is a point that most of the teachers interviewed remarked upon. Jiro described, for instance, the typical scenario of teachers in Japan receiving the prepared teaching materials from the government with the assistance of specialist companies.

Jiro: Well, thinking about the situation in Japan, firstly they [teachers] are provided with an instruction summary and then the textbooks that are produced by the specialists in the market following the contents of the instruction summary. In the big market of education, well, I may call it "education business," those specialist companies produce not only the textbooks but also the related workbooks and tests.

In comparison with the education system in Japan, most of the teachers found themselves in New Zealand being free from restrictions such as those imposed by the Japanese Ministry of Education. For some teachers this freedom was a surprise.

Mariko: Well, when I went to the College of Education, I was surprised to find that New Zealand education was so different from that in Japan in all sorts of ways. I was quite shocked at that time. Especially when I found that the teachers I met through teaching practice were making their own teaching materials.

²² Officially known in English as the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology or MEXT since 2001; but for brevity and clarity, the title "Ministry of Education" will be used throughout this thesis.

Yurie: ... *That's why I did not have any concerns [about teaching], but I was a bit surprised to find that there were no proper textbooks for teaching New Zealand students at that time.*

Other teachers indicated that this freedom was difficult because it was so different from their experience of teaching in Japan.

Kyoko: *In Japan teachers are advised what to cover in teaching in detail, whereas in New Zealand, that is not the case, which is sometimes the hard part of my teaching in New Zealand.*

Unlike in Japan, New Zealand's Ministry of Education does not prescribe set textbooks.

Kyoko added: *I found it difficult to teach students, as each student did not have a textbook, unlike in Japan.*

Jiro described the difficulty he had in finding an appropriate textbook.

Jiro: *When I first started teaching Japanese, I found only one textbook which fitted the curriculum content. In one textbook for juniors, for example, I found the language used in the textbook was totally incorrect with lots of mistakes, but they used to use that textbook at my school. As soon as I looked at that book, I realised that I would not be able to use it. So I threw it away and started looking for other textbooks, but then I could not find any at all which fitted the New Zealand curriculum.*

However, several teachers remarked that they liked the freedom available in New Zealand. As for the curriculum resources, for instance, they are allowed to select for themselves any textbooks or teaching materials to suit their classes accordingly. Many of the teachers mentioned the freedom to choose their own teaching materials.

Mika: *I like the New Zealand way in that we teachers have freedom to prepare our teaching materials.*

Mariko: *Teachers can choose textbooks and teaching materials for themselves.*

Masako: ... *Also, they [teachers] do not have to stick to only one textbook, either. Teachers can select any materials.*

In addition to preparing teaching materials, teachers are also responsible for organising the class contents by themselves, with the proviso that they need to cover the syllabus or curriculum set by the Ministry of Education in New Zealand. Many of the teachers spoke about their freedom in organising the class/course content.

Masako: Teachers are quite free to decide what to do in the classroom. Class content can be changed depending on what teachers want to do. There is no strict timetable for the subject.

Mariko: I really don't know whether it is better or worse, but as long as they follow the guidelines to some extent, the level of class content can be decided by the teachers in charge.

Saki: We are allowed to teach in our own way using the materials that we like in New Zealand.

Furthermore, some of the teachers questioned the freedom and flexibility in teaching in New Zealand.

Chiharu: As long as we cover the content of the curriculum, we can even arrange the order. However, I wondered whether rearranging the order of class contents helps students learn systematically. I suppose that the Ministry of Education recommends the order, considering the steps that the students can go through to make good progress. If we mix up the order and choose any materials, students may be confused at some stage. So I think freedom and flexibility in this respect are not necessarily good for students. To prepare for NCEA, I think this issue is also quite important for junior students as well.

Many of the teachers described the freedom to choose curriculum resources and to decide the class/course content as one of their first discoveries in New Zealand schools. They expressed different opinions about the freedom. Some teachers found it difficult to make their own resources, while others enjoyed the freedom. There were also some teachers who questioned the efficacy of freedom and flexibility in organising curriculum content from the students' point of view.

b) Differences in Pedagogical Practices

In accordance with what many of the teachers had expected, most of the teachers interviewed confirmed that pedagogical practices in New Zealand schools were very different from those in Japan. They especially found that particular aspects of

teaching such as teaching methods and learning styles in New Zealand were different from in Japan.

In Japan, the education system emphasises rote learning in which teachers give lectures and ask students to practise memorisation of the new knowledge. In general, students in Japan are not allowed to challenge teachers in the classroom because of the influence of the teachings of Confucianism. According to Confucius, older people who are more experienced in life, thus, more knowledgeable, must be respected by younger people who are less experienced. The more knowledge they have, the more they are to be respected. This concept is applied to the relationship between teachers and students. In Japan, students are more passive and spoon-fed by the teachers. They are often instructed what to do and are expected to follow the instructions given by their teachers. Individuals are expected not to be conspicuous in the classroom but to conform.

Furthermore, the textbooks supplied by the Ministry of Education are very important for both teachers and students to refer to. For both teachers and students, the Ministry is the figure of respectable authority. Teachers pose questions based on what is written in the textbook, while students answer those questions based on what is suggested in the textbook. They are encouraged to refer to the texts and often asked to copy exactly what is written in the textbook. When they have a class activity such as debating, for example, students are asked to set their opinions referring to the ideas written in the textbook. In this way, students in Japan are expected to conform to the prescribed curriculum that also decides how students should behave at school. Regarding the education system in Japan, several teachers described some of the characteristics of the Japanese classroom.

Lisa: In Japan teachers stand in front of their students, while students sit and behave passively. Students just listen to what the teacher says to them. It is just like an army. Well, I may be exaggerating, but that is what I experienced as a high school student in Japan.

Mariko: Well, in Japan, in general, at most schools students are passive. They answer only the questions that the teachers ask. Most of the students do not dare to present an idea which is different from the ideas shown in the textbook.

Masako: *The Japanese system puts emphasis on rote learning. Teachers give lectures and students memorise the specified points. That's all. Especially, secondary school students need to work for passing the entrance examination to get into good universities. Therefore, they need to work by themselves at memorising the knowledge.*

In contrast with the Japanese education system, the New Zealand education system emphasises interactive teaching such as discussions or group work. In New Zealand schools, students are strongly encouraged to participate in the various class activities where they have freedom to ask any related questions to their teachers, while teachers do not need to be concerned about having to be their perfect teacher. For example, students may propose opinions different from their teachers' in discussions. They are given many opportunities to express themselves in the classroom. They are also encouraged to participate in the various activities which are organised by the school. Through participation, they gain more confidence and grow their potential to improve themselves in certain areas. Regarding the New Zealand education system, many of the teachers interviewed described some of the characteristics that they had observed in New Zealand schools.

Masako: *Well, teaching style in New Zealand is different from in Japan. ... It is totally different. Students ask questions frequently and they do discussions as well. Teachers also join them sometimes. Learning in New Zealand does not comprise only questions and answers. I was surprised.*

Kaori: *In New Zealand, if students are not participating in class, teachers will give them a warning to begin with. They make sure that every student participates in the activities in class.*

Mariko: *Over here, not only at English schools but also at secondary schools, students are encouraged to participate in class activities such as role plays and group discussions. Absolutely they are.*

Mariko and Sakura gave some examples to explain in detail what they had observed in the classroom and contrasted it with what they do in Japan.

Mariko: *In New Zealand, students are asked to do a certain topic with the classmate sitting next to them, to discuss with their classmates, or to do a project in a group of six or so after reading the same story or something. Group work is one of the main methods of learning over here. Well, in Japan they are*

not really encouraged to work in a group in class, especially at senior high school.

Sakura: What I have found through teaching in New Zealand schools was that students are active in the classroom. For example, students are busy making comments and asking questions. Therefore, my lesson often stops in the middle because I need to answer to their questions. I often run out of time to teach what I prepared for a lesson. In Japan, this kind of thing seldom happened to me as students in Japan are passive and busy listening to the teacher and taking notes.

Sakura further added what she had found in New Zealand education.

Sakura: In New Zealand, many teachers deliver student-centred classes with a communicative approach. Also, the students are given more options and encouraged to concentrate on what they really like to do such as drama, dance or sports. In Japan, students normally do not have many options.²³

Because of the differences in the education system between Japan and New Zealand, many of the teachers needed to learn and drastically change their teaching styles so as to meet the needs of students in New Zealand (see the details in Chapter Seven). Through interviews, it was found that having teaching experience in Japan was one of the reasons that many of the teachers had decided to become a teacher in New Zealand (see the section “Expectations of Teaching in New Zealand,” Chapter Five). Although some teachers mentioned that their teaching experience was found to be helpful, others remarked that most of the teaching methods they had used in Japan were not applicable in New Zealand (see the section “Learning through Teaching Experience in Japan,” Chapter Nine for more discussion).

c) Differences in Attitudes and Values of Teachers

While many of the teachers recounted their discoveries of the differences between the education systems in Japan and New Zealand, some of them also pointed out the differences between the two countries in the attitudes and values of teachers.

²³ Students in New Zealand are given more option classes as they proceed through their school career. For instance, when Year 11 students (that is equivalent to Year 1 senior high students in Japan) take six subjects to study for the academic year, the compulsory subjects are English, Maths, (and maybe Science). The other three or four subjects are chosen by the individual students who have to enroll in the subject courses of their choice before the new academic year starts. In Japan, all the subjects that high school students take are normally decided by the school.

A couple of teachers explained the Japanese traditional values which are influenced by Confucianism. The tenets in Confucianism teach that the more experienced people who are older must be respected. Thus, from the students' point of view, they must respect teachers and consequently expect them to be more knowledgeable, a belief which does not allow students to entertain any doubt toward the knowledge of teachers.

Masako: My belief was that teachers must not make any mistakes and always teach correctly. If a teacher made a mistake, it would become a big problem in Japan.

Such values about the importance of teachers posed problems for my participants when they were teachers in New Zealand. Lisa recalled what happened to her in a classroom.

Lisa: At one time when I was asked a question [by one of my students] to which I was not sure of the answer, I became silent and started thinking. What I quickly thought of was that I must answer the question because I am a teacher. I did not want him/her to think of me as useless. ... To be honest, I was not sure about the correct answer. I didn't want to see my students looking at me doubtfully just because I could not answer. So I put it in such a way as, "Probably I think... such and such...." And I realised that my students were confused.

The consequence of having self-imposed high expectations of self, in some cases, led to negative outcomes.

Lisa: ... I soon realised what I did was the worst thing for my students. I should have told them clearly, "I don't know." And then I should have said, "I will find out and let you know next time." ... However, this kind of incident happened to me a couple of times during my first year of teaching, and it made me so depressed.

In contrast, many of the teachers described what they had observed among New Zealand teachers in the classroom. Kaori described the attitudes and values of teachers and students in New Zealand, and commented on what she had observed:

Kaori: Teachers in New Zealand tell their students, "I don't know," if they are not sure about the correct answers. And then the students accept it and expect their teachers to give them a clear explanation next time. Personally, I don't

like to say, “I don’t know,” in the classroom, so I spend lots of time in class preparation.

Masako encountered a particular incident at a class observation where the teacher in charge made a mistake. She described what she had learnt from this incident:

Masako: ... Because of this incident, I realised that it is acceptable for teachers to make a mistake in front of students. I found that students can learn from the mistake.

d) Attitudes and Behaviours of Students

In addition to the attitudes and values of teachers, most of the teachers also spoke about the attitudes and behaviours of students. They pointed out the differences between the students in Japan and students in New Zealand. They also raised the issue of similarities among the students from Japan and other Asian countries.

(i) Cultural Differences in Attitudes and Behaviours

Many of the teachers indicated that their values were largely influenced by Japanese culture and that they had experienced moments when they were puzzled by what they observed among students’ attitudes and behaviours in New Zealand schools. As indicated above, in Japanese society, at school, students must respect teachers as authority according to the social hierarchy. They therefore tend to keep quiet in front of teachers and not to approach teachers directly to give negative comments/feedback. This is different from student behaviour in New Zealand.

Fujiko described the differences:

Fujiko: In Japan teachers are teachers and students are students. This means that even if students have some complaints about their teachers, they never directly tell them so. When I think back on the time when I was a high school student, we did not actually criticise teachers who could not teach well and our parents did not directly go and see the principal to ask for some changes in the teaching of a certain teacher. Over here, we get this kind of thing straight away.

Other teachers gave more examples of the differences in attitudes and behaviours between students in Japan and students in New Zealand.

Ayame: *As far as I know, the students in Japan don't tell teachers directly what they find in class. They keep silent as a whole except younger pupils. ... It may happen that some students even may fall asleep at junior high school [because they need to be quiet].²⁴ I don't know much about the present situation at junior high school in Japan, but I think students normally keep silent in class in both good ways and bad ways. Well, in New Zealand, students are forthright in telling me what they want to do or do not want to do.*

Kaori: *In Japan, students are more likely to feel ashamed if they come up with a question, thinking that they may be the only ones that are unable to understand. Students over here never think that way. If they cannot understand, they always ask me, anything.*

Because of their own cultural values, it was natural for teachers to find it surprising to receive comments/feedback directly from their students. Many of the teachers commented that the students in New Zealand were more open and direct.

Fujiko: *I found that the students in New Zealand directly comment about teachers without any hesitation. I quite often hear the students' point of view towards teachers directly from our students.*

Mika: *I have found that the students over here are quite honest in the way that they express themselves freely.*

Some of the questionnaire respondents commented on what they had found in students' attitudes and behaviours as a surprise.

One wrote, *I was surprised by the fact that the students in New Zealand often challenge teachers in the classroom.*

Another wrote, *I found that students in New Zealand often try to justify themselves when they get in a difficult situation, to make an excuse. I also found that some students are so outspoken and therefore they always comment on the questions.*

Teachers further described how students behaved in the classroom.

²⁴ Quite a few teachers mentioned that students in Japan sometimes fall asleep in class. One of the reasons was as Ayame explained during the interview described in the above. The other reason pointed out by many of the teachers was that students in Japan are often busy at night as they stay at cram school to study until as late as ten o'clock in the evening, which may affect their performance at school during the day.

Ayame: My students will say to me, “No” straight away if they do not want to do some writing exercise. ... Also, I always get feedback from them in both good and bad ways. ... If they find the class enjoyable they look happy. They also tell me straight that the class was good.

Many of the teachers recognised that in New Zealand, people respect individuals and like to be independent. Students therefore often emphasise their own right to be taken into consideration. The issue of financial support is commonly raised among students as one of the concerns that they have. For instance, those students who work part-time expect teachers to take it into account in their workload and results. Anzu described what she had experienced was rather shocking to her.

Anzu: Teachers are asked by school to set some homework which requires students to work for ten to twenty minutes a day per subject. When I asked them to do some homework, they went like “What?” So I told them that they need to do it so that they can learn Japanese faster. Then they told me, “I don’t have time,” and one of the students said, “Because I am working.”

On the other hand, teachers were uneasy about receiving negative feedback.

Kyoko: Students over here speak out directly and give me feedback all the time in both good and bad ways. I sometimes feel hurt by what they say because they are very straightforward.

As described above, many teachers found that their own cultural values influenced how they had responded to students’ comments/feedback. Some teachers were surprised to see the differences in the attitudes and behaviours of students between the two countries, while others found it difficult to receive any comments/feedback until they learned how to make good use of it.

(ii) Attitudes and Behaviours of Students with Different Cultural Backgrounds

Most of the teachers noted that they had learnt the differences in attitudes and behaviours of students between Japan and New Zealand through teaching. In addition, they talked about the students with different cultural backgrounds from other countries in the world, especially focusing on the Non-English Speaking Background

Asian students who have dramatically increased in number recently (Li, Barker, and Marshall, 2002).²⁵

Several teachers pointed out that the students from Confucian-heritage countries such as China, Korea and Japan are similar to each other in terms of the behaviours and attitudes that they show in the classroom.

Momoko: *I have found that the status of teachers among [East] Asians is high, so that they tend to express their respect to teachers.*

Hiroko: *My students sometimes tell me about their cultures and I find it interesting. When I taught them the respect forms of expressions, they told me that they also have honorific forms of expressions in Korea. In Korea, they use the respect forms of expressions if they talk to a person who is even one year older than them. They told me that age determines what kind of forms of language they use.*

Kaori described what she had observed in the classroom among students from Confucian-heritage countries.

Kaori: *They do not want to stand out in the classroom. So, for example, they come and ask questions after the class. A lot come at once. When I asked them during the class time whether they had any questions or not, they never asked me, but then they would come and see me once the class finished. They are mostly Japanese, Korean or Chinese.*

She added what she had observed among local students in New Zealand:

Kaori: *... I bet students from Asian countries feel ashamed to ask questions in front of others. But then the students over here never think that way. If they cannot understand, they always ask me, no matter what.*

A few teachers remarked that they had learnt the preferences of students from Asian countries and commented on their findings:

Momoko: *... I also found that the students from Asian countries prefer using set textbooks during the course of study, while with Kiwi students that is not always*

²⁵ It is estimated that 65,000 international fee-paying students have been studying at New Zealand schools, tertiary institutions, and language schools recently, of whom eighty-five per cent come from Asia and half of them come from Confucian-heritage countries: China, Korea and Japan (Li, Barker, and Marshall, p.137).

the case. ... Moreover, I noticed that they like to be spoon-fed by teachers. I sometimes feel as though I am working at a kindergarten.

Given that the characteristics of incidents described above were commonly observed in New Zealand schools, a recommendation that would come out of this research would be that Japanese teachers in New Zealand should bear in mind that different cultural expectations exist among students, so as to avoid discrepancies in expectations.

e) Differences in Working Conditions

During interviews, teachers also remarked on the differences in working conditions at school between Japan and New Zealand such as working hours and the length of holidays. (Important working conditions for teaching in New Zealand are explored in Chapter Nine.) Although they found that these conditions differ from public school to private school in each country, the main findings that they described were similar. Teru explained about working hours at school.

Teru: I normally teach five hours a day. I start working at 8:30am and finish at 3:00pm. If we complete all the work for the day, we are allowed to leave school at 3:00pm. In Japan, teachers normally stay at school even after finishing teaching at around 3:00pm. They also go to school during the holiday time.

Jiro represented the opinions of many other teachers regarding the holidays.

Jiro: Even though we get so exhausted by teaching, having found it quite hard sometimes to face the difficulties or problems at school during the term, it is nothing much after all when compared to the situation in Japan. We teachers can be completely off from work during the summer holidays [which include Christmas and New Year] and besides, we have two weeks off once every two months. We don't have to go to school during the holiday time. I think this is one of the best parts of being a teacher at school [in New Zealand].

Thus many of the teachers found that their actual working hours and the holidays that they have are good conditions for working at a school. On the other hand, some of them pointed out that they had initially found it difficult to cope with the frequent changes in schedule required at school. They explained that they needed to change their schedules, for example, according to the progress students made. For instance,

Mariko had to make some adjustments when she found learning difficulties among her students.

Mariko: When I asked a senior teacher about this problem, the teacher told me that if we found that our students' level is low, then we need to lower the level. ... I did not expect that the teachers could change the contents to lower the level at their own discretion. I thought I had to keep to the schedule by trying to achieve the standard level for students, that is suggested by the guideline issued by the Ministry of Education.

Mika gave another example of the changes in schedule that she had needed to handle:

Mika: Although the curriculum required four hours to teach Japanese per week, my school decided that I would teach two hours per week instead, due to the small number of the students taking Japanese. Because of this, students were asked to study by themselves for two hours. After all, I found that I would not be able to cover all the requirements set by the curriculum within the two hours, and my students could not keep up with the work in the curriculum because of the limited amount of class time. Therefore, I volunteered to teach them an extra two hours without being paid. On top of that, I offered to teach them during holidays for eight consecutive hours to catch up with the objectives in the curriculum. I then applied for some funding later and managed to get paid.

While many of teachers found that the main working conditions in teaching in New Zealand (for example, working hours) are better than in Japan, some of them encountered difficulties which they needed to work out to manage their classes and adapt themselves to working at a New Zealand school.

This section described the initial discoveries of the Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand schools. Their findings were mainly the differences between Japan and New Zealand regarding the education system, including curriculum resources, pedagogical practices, attitudes and values of teachers, attitudes and behaviours of students, and working conditions at school. In addition, some examples of the difficulties that teachers experienced and the ways that they managed to solve problems were also presented. Many of the teachers found that they needed to adapt themselves to working in New Zealand schools, which they found very different from Japan in many aspects of teaching. My findings in this section indicated that what my participant Japanese teachers described was that they had gone through the early stage of the cultural adaptation process as an immigrant beginner teacher.

Literature on acculturation suggests that immigrants go through different stages of acculturation which show the psychological and behavioural changes of the individual through contact with other cultures and peoples (Graves, 1967; Berry and Sam, 1997). My findings demonstrated that my participant teachers went through the psychological and behavioural changes as described above. In the case of Lisa and Masako, for instance, they realised that their Japanese values initially obstructed them in such a way that they tried to be a perfect teacher, but this turned out to be inappropriate to work as a teacher in New Zealand. They therefore decided to change their values and attitudes to adapt themselves to the way of teaching in New Zealand.

On the other hand, literature on teacher development shows that most beginning teachers go through “reality shock” (Farrel, 2003; Koetsier and Wubbels, 1995; Lang, 1999) and moreover, it suggests that what beginner teachers experience as reality shock may be stronger than in other professions because of the isolated working conditions (Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986). In these respects, my participant teachers experienced more difficult situations than those beginner teachers because they were being isolated from other colleagues and at the same time were culturally isolated. Anzu, for instance, experienced the reality shock through having received a negative comment directly from her student when she was working by herself in the classroom. She not only experienced reality shock and isolation but also realised the mismatch in expectations and cultural values. Kyoko as well experienced the mismatch in cultural values. She confessed how she felt when she received negative feedback directly from her students. In the case of Mika, she had to work on organising her own teaching hours because of the lack of funding supplied by her school. She thought that this would never happen to her if she was teaching in Japan.

The following section focuses on the main issues that teachers found most difficult to deal with in their teaching. It explores what teachers experienced in the classroom and what they learned through having experienced such difficulties.

3. Difficulties Experienced in Teaching in New Zealand

During interviews, most of the teachers volunteered the information that they needed to adapt themselves to the New Zealand education system as a beginning teacher.

Many teachers pointed out that as a native speaker of Japanese with a Japanese educational background they found themselves holding different educational and social values from their students in New Zealand. In such circumstances, they often found themselves having unprecedented experiences in the workplace. They described some of the incidents that they experienced at school and the ways in which they managed to assimilate into the environment. For convenience, I have disaggregated below the main problems the teachers said that they had faced.

a) Language Barrier

The language barrier was one of the issues brought up by many of the teachers as one of the difficulties that they had experienced in a new culture at school. They indicated that they had some language problems especially at the beginning of their career. Mariko, Lisa and Jiro described school incidents that were difficult to accept.

Mariko: ... I was teased because of my English with a Japanese accent. That was something I encountered that would not normally happen in Japan.

Jiro: Well, initially I suppose my English was not good enough so that I was not very confident in a way. They often came and saw me, calling me "mate!" I told them that I was not their mate.

Lisa: Some of my students could not understand me well probably because I speak English with a Japanese accent. When I was explaining something to one of my students, for example, he/she told me, "Ah, don't worry about it," and stopped me explaining it. I found some students are just not used to listening to English with foreign accents. Especially those who have just started learning. It's like us initially finding it difficult to listen to a farmer talking with a strong Kiwi accent, while we can understand very well what newsreaders are saying on TV.

Similar incidents happened to other teachers; however, most of them took it as part of the learning process of being a beginner teacher. Some of the teachers expressed that it was not easy to teach in a second language and that their command of English was not adequate especially during the first year of teaching. Ayame and Yuji confessed what they had learnt about themselves as a beginner teacher.

Ayame: I had some difficulties in teaching in English especially for my first year. I didn't know how to express myself in the classroom.

Yuji: ... Well, I was, maybe ...not very good at speaking English. Initially, I could not use difficult words to express myself [in the classroom].

Lisa described how she found teaching in a second language.

Lisa: *My English is not perfect, so I found it difficult to explain in English. I often got frustrated because of that. ... I found it very important to pronounce accurately; otherwise people would not understand me at all.*

Lisa continued to explain a particular incident that she experienced in the classroom about which she felt regretful.

Lisa: ...Well, one time I could not understand the question that my student asked me. I had to ask him/her a couple of times what he/she meant. I felt that I was wasting their time. But then he/she wanted to find out the answer from me and asked me again, "Excuse me. Can you explain it again?" I remember I was very slow to explain it.

Many of the teachers initially found it difficult to use English as the language of instruction, yet they were only able to learn in the actual teaching settings. Furthermore, some of them remarked that they had difficulty in teaching in Japanese as a second language, because they were native speaker teachers.

Miyoko: *Although I have been teaching Japanese language in English for such a long time both in Japan and New Zealand, I often come across difficulties in explaining the complicated grammatical points. We learned Japanese language at school as a subject in Japan but as a native speaker we did not really analyse the grammatical structure in sentences in such detail.*

b) Classroom Management

One of the main difficulties that Japanese native speaker teachers encountered was the language barrier, especially when they started teaching as a beginning teacher. This accelerated the degree of difficulties experienced in classroom management. Through interviews, another reason for having difficulties in classroom management emerged. Several teachers pointed out that the positioning of teachers may also affect classroom management of Japanese native speaker teachers.

(i) Difficulties in Classroom Management

During interviews, most of the teachers spoke about their difficulties in classroom management. Many of them experienced difficulties especially at the beginning of their career, while a few mentioned that they still encountered difficulties.

Mariko: I really had a hard time at the start of my teaching, especially with Year 9 students. I was so exhausted.

Saki: No, I could not do well in class management at the beginning. ... I had to try to control my students even though they were too noisy and beyond my control.

Some teachers described how classroom management problems were personally taxing.

Fujiko: I found that the education system in New Zealand was different, so it was hard. I really did not want to go to school at some stage. I could not manage my class very well, either. I could not control some students who did not behave well. I could not take leadership as a teacher, either. I was not mature enough as a teacher, neither as a person. In that way, I had a hard time at the beginning.

Ayame: I was very poor at speaking English. I was also not sure about how to teach New Zealand students, either. It was very hard for me. ... At one time when I distributed the Hiragana worksheets to my students, these were transformed into paper airplanes flying in the classroom. It was depressing.

Still other teachers described difficulties they had faced when confronted with students who were not organised. Interestingly, these teachers were able to explain ways that they had managed these students. Mariko, Kyoko and Ayame described what happened in the classroom and how they managed to recover from such situations.

Mariko: At my school where I started teaching from the third term, there was some chaos as I mentioned before, and I could not deliver my classes well. The first thing that I had to do was to make my students sit down properly and keep them quiet. I found that the class management such as giving instructions or setting up some rules comes before teaching especially for younger students. I suppose this kind of thing is not really required at school in Japan. That's why I struggled a lot then.

Kyoko: When I first started teaching Japanese, I was so shocked to see lots of students without their own stationery and notebooks. I had to give them instructions like what to bring to the class and what they should be doing before I come to the classroom.

Ayame: There are lots of problems that we have to solve before we actually start teaching. ... For example, when I found that my students were keeping vocabulary lists at the bottom of their bag, torn, I finally decided to ask them to glue them into their notebooks. Then I had to ask them what to do step by step such as getting scissors to cut it out and gluing it into the notebook. I had to tell them what to do about everything. ... I had to start from giving instructions on what they need to do before attending a class, saying, "Bring your pencils," "Get your notebooks ready," "Please copy the notes into your notebook," and the like. I managed to do it, thinking that it was really hard.

These teachers demonstrated how teachers who have moved through the "survival" (Katz, 1972; Maynard and Furlong, 1995) stage are able to anticipate management issues and act to avoid them. On the other hand, some of the teachers confessed that they still have difficulties in classroom management after having taught more than a few years. Jiro, for example, emphasised that classroom management has been the most difficult part of teaching in New Zealand schools.

Jiro: I think this is the biggest difference or the thing that I had the most difficulties with [at school in New Zealand], I would say it was how to keep my students quiet.

He continued to explain what he had found in managing his students:

Jiro: Students easily cut us down to their level, I would say. I found there aren't any differences in levels or hierarchy between teachers and students at all. I think New Zealand is a new country and that's why maybe. This is the thing that surprised me the most and I have difficulties in handling it so far.

A few teachers explained that the reason they have difficulties in classroom management could be attributed to the nature of students who do not improve their behaviour in the classroom. For example, some teachers remarked that they are normally able to use some techniques to make most students quiet in the classroom but that they do not work for certain students. Others mentioned that the students in New Zealand are "more energetic and active in talking" and therefore they suggested that something more than language ability is required to manage the classroom.

(ii) Positioning of Teachers

Some teachers pointed out that one of the reasons for having difficulties in classroom management was derived from the positioning of teachers in New Zealand, which is different from the positioning of teachers in Japan.

In Japan, the older are respected by the younger on the basis of Confucian ideas. Moreover, as Nakane (1972) advocates, the teacher–student relation in Japan is “vertical” and thus teachers and students are vertically positioned in accordance with their attributes and social context. Mariko and Jiro explained how teachers in Japan are positioned by society.

Mariko: Teachers in Japan are automatically respected by people. For example, if you mentioned, “I am a school teacher,” the response would be “You have a good occupation.”

Jiro: In Japan, having the title of “teacher” means you are respected by the community, students and their parents anyway.

In comparison, teachers explained the positioning of teachers in New Zealand, and described what they thought of managing their difficulties.

Mariko: Over here [in New Zealand], however, when I told someone [that I am teaching at school], the response was “Oh, you must be having a hard time.”... This difference [in positioning of teachers between Japan and New Zealand] was very surprising. ... If you want your students to respect you [in New Zealand], you must do something special to get it, which is, I found, very hard.

Chiharu: When I talked to one of my Kiwi neighbours, she said, “Are you becoming a teacher? You are brave!” and asked me, “Why?” She was mainly worried whether I could manage to handle Kiwi students. ... But I have found that I can learn the strategies of how to manage classes anyway.

Jiro: Some of my students often called me “mate.” In Japan, students never speak to their teachers in that way. They address them as “teacher” precisely because they are their teachers. ... Over here, we teachers need to keep on telling our students that we are the teachers.

One New Zealand study confirmed that teaching is perceived as a lower status occupation (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006). In contrast, teachers in Japan “enjoy

considerable prestige” (Lewis, 1995, p.13)²⁶ and their salaries are generally higher than those of other professionals such as engineers and pharmacists (Ibid., 1995). It can be said that my participant teachers experienced difficulties in classroom management partly because they felt the discrepancy in positioning of teachers between Japan and New Zealand.

This section focused on two main difficulties that teachers raised in interviews—the language barrier and classroom management. The language barrier has been identified as one of the main problems for overseas students that contribute to difficulties in the process of learning and cultural adaptation (Li, Barker, and Marshall, 2002; Mills, 1997). Although these studies focused on overseas students from Asian countries with learning problems, the main finding was similar to my finding insofar as most of my participant teachers from Japan had also encountered language problems. The findings of one study (Mills, 1997) revealed that Asian students had faced language problems as well as other problems. For instance, the students found the differences in student–teacher interaction, and their own lack of New Zealand experience, resulted in a sense of exclusion and a dependence upon compatriot or international students. Similarly, my participant teachers faced other problems because of the clash in cultural values between teachers and students, which influenced many aspects of their teaching. Although both Asian students and the teachers from Japan encountered language problems in the early stages of being in a foreign country, there were differences in their experiences. The findings in Mills’ (1997) study showed that overseas students had developed a sense of exclusion and depended upon compatriot or other international students as a result of having some problems including language problems. In contrast, my participant teachers gave me the impression that they had many opportunities to use the language through constantly interacting with students, although they often found it difficult to express themselves in English. It seemed to me that even though they sometimes found it difficult to use the language in teaching, they appreciated that it helped them improve their language ability in that environment.

²⁶ Lewis (1995) refers to the report on Japanese public opinion announced by the U.S. Department of Education to explain the high social status of teachers in Japan. According to the report, the 1975 survey showed that elementary principals and teachers ranked 9th and 18th highest in public esteem out of eighty-two occupations. Principals’ prestige was higher than that of department heads of large corporations, and elementary teachers enjoyed higher prestige than white collar employees in large firms and municipal department heads (pp.13–14).

Literature on teacher development showed that classroom management was the greatest concern for beginning teachers (e.g., Bezzina, 2006; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986) and identified the factors influencing classroom management. These factors included teachers' sense of efficacy (Lang, 1999; Woolfolk, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990), teacher characteristics and teaching styles (Opdenakker and Damme, 2006), and teacher's certification sources and experience levels (Ritter and Hancock, 2007). The findings in this section revealed that classroom management of native Japanese speaker teachers was largely influenced by being a beginner teacher as well as being an immigrant teacher. Previous studies suggest that most beginner teachers encounter difficulties in classroom management similar to those of participants. My participant teachers were, however, not only beginner teachers when they first encountered difficulty in classroom management; they also had language problems and different cultural values. Because they were exposed to a new environment as an immigrant teacher, they appeared to experience some problems unique to their position as beginning, immigrant, and native speaker teachers.

In relation to classroom management, the adjustment made to cope with these difficulties and strategies used for classroom management are explored in the section "Classroom Management in New Zealand Schools" in Chapter Seven. Other issues to help teachers work effectively on classroom management are discussed in detail in the section "Managing Classes through Communication" in Chapter Eight.

4. Summary

Japanese native speaker teachers' expectations with regards to teaching in the New Zealand classroom in the present research were related to the differences in the education system between Japan and New Zealand. Their expectations in regard to being Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand schools were also presented in this chapter. The differences that confronted Japanese native speaker teachers when they began teaching in New Zealand included curriculum resources, pedagogical practices, teachers' attitudes and values, students' attitudes and behaviours, and working conditions. The main difficulties that they encountered were language problems and classroom management. The latter difficulty is similar to that

encountered by most beginner teachers. In the case of immigrant teachers, however, classroom management is not experienced as a separate issue.

Indeed, the differences and difficulties that teachers confronted at school are interrelated, because all aspects of teaching are interconnected. For example, the educational system influences which teaching methods the teachers use, what kinds of teaching styles the teachers adopt, and how the teachers manage their classes. Thus, for my participants, having to deal with different resources meant that they had to find new ways of teaching, which were different from their Japanese experience. Furthermore, the new ways of teaching put pressure on their confidence for classroom management.

The cultural differences between Japan and New Zealand influence teachers' attitudes and values in such a way that they are expected to behave as a teacher according to the norms required in each country. Here, too, teachers found that the perceived lack of respect by students of teachers was both a difference and a difficulty. The students behaved (or misbehaved) differently than expected and, while some teachers were able to successfully use management techniques learned at New Zealand Teachers Colleges, others found that nothing seemed to work. Most, also, remarked that the language barrier limited their attempt to adopt the norms of New Zealand classroom.

Interviews revealed that many teachers were required to adjust themselves to the new school environment and education system in New Zealand in various ways. The next chapter explores the adjustments that they made to improve their teaching to highlight the process of becoming a teacher in New Zealand schools.

CHAPTER SEVEN: ADJUSTING AS A JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHER

Whereas the previous chapter examined the major concerns of teachers who were starting out in “survival” stage (Katz, 1972; Maynard and Furlong, 1995), this chapter explores their adjustments and examines how Japanese native speaker teachers adapted to a new culture during the “consolidation” (Katz, 1972) stage of becoming a teacher in New Zealand. It focuses on the adjustments they had to make to aspects of the educational system, attitudes and values, pedagogical practices, classroom management, and helpful strategies. The adjustments made by teachers in these aspects are illustrated through individual case studies with reference to the cultural difference between Japan and New Zealand.

1. Adjusting to the Environment of Teaching Japanese in New Zealand

When I talked with teachers, I found many of them remarking on things they had had to adjust to. Most of the teachers expressed that they needed to adjust themselves to the norms required at school. Many of them pointed out that in the environment of New Zealand schools, the students have more freedom. They also found that the teachers in New Zealand are more self-taught and are entrusted to take more responsibility for their own work. My participant teachers stressed that it was important for them to adjust to the environment in order to keep their work going while maintaining their own values.

a) Adjustment in Organising Curriculum Resources

Many of the teachers mentioned the freedom to choose curriculum resources in New Zealand schools as one of the first things that they discovered as a beginning teacher (see the section “Differences in Curriculum Resources,” Chapter Six). They explained how they made adjustments to this.

Mika: One of the good things about teaching in New Zealand is that we teachers are free to choose the textbooks ourselves. I therefore chose them according to the ability of the students for each class.

Mariko: *I actually found it very hard to make my own teaching materials. I chose to use some textbooks for each class. I found it easier for me to have several textbooks.*

Saki: *I found it easier to organise myself because I don't have to follow any restrictions. I choose the materials according to the level of students.*

While teachers are able to choose the main textbook(s) for use in the classroom, many of them remarked that they also make their own teaching materials for themselves which become supplementary to the main textbook(s).

Kyoko: *We teachers can make our own teaching materials and teach students in our own way to suit individuals.*

Yurie: *...there were no proper textbooks for teaching New Zealand students at that time. So I started making a textbook myself and produced one.*

The additional teaching materials include things such as excerpts copied from other textbooks or the text of conversations and related questions made by the teachers. They may also include pictures and various games. Some of the teachers explained that the additional teaching materials help students understand and be more motivated to learn the content of the lesson. Others mentioned that such teaching materials help teachers deliver adequate lessons in the classroom.

Some of the teachers further explained that making the teaching materials enabled them to share them with other teachers. Such sharing has a number of benefits as described by Miyoko.

Miyoko: *We often make our own teaching materials and put them into shared folders so that the teachers involved can access them and use them according to the level of students' ability or the students' needs. This system helps us not only to save some time making extra resources unnecessarily but also sometimes to discover and learn more effective methods created by other teachers.*

While many teachers appreciated the benefits associated with making their own resources, they were quick to assure that in the senior classes this flexibility needed to be contained.

Mariko: *Although we are free to choose teaching materials, we cannot be so flexible in deciding the contents. Because I really want my students to pass the NCEA exams with good marks, I am careful about what I use for teaching and what to teach in each class, especially for senior students like Year 11 and Year 12.*

Anzu described how she resolved the dilemma of making her own teaching materials while still preparing senior students for national exams.

Anzu: *We teach according to the curriculum set by the Ministry of Education. On the other hand, we need to choose teaching materials by ourselves. However, it is impossible to find a textbook which covers all the contents of the curriculum. I often find some other vocabulary or expressions in textbooks which our students do not need to learn. In reality, the most important thing at the moment is to get my students through the NCEA exams. Therefore, I often make my own materials using past exam papers. I explain to my students where all the questions come from and the purpose of working on it. Then they are keen on studying it.*

While some teachers organised the class/course materials and contents by themselves, others worked out effective ways to reduce their workload such as sharing the teaching materials. Many of the teachers were also aware of the NCEA system that gives them more responsibility for teaching especially senior students in terms of the curriculum content.

b) Adjustment in Teachers' Attitudes and Values

In addition to the main adjustment that many of the teachers made for curriculum resources, some of them found that they needed to adjust their attitudes and values as teachers. They found it necessary to adapt to the values commonly observed at school in New Zealand, so that it became easier and more effective for them to work with their students and colleagues at school.

(i) Adjustment in Attitudes and Values as a Teacher in New Zealand

As some of the teachers mentioned earlier, teachers in Japan are perceived to be knowledgeable, respectable and less likely to make mistakes (see the section "Differences in Attitudes and Values of Teachers," Chapter Six). An advantage for teaching in New Zealand was to accept that it is all right for teachers to not know

everything. For Masako, this adjustment came about after she observed another teacher made a mistake and apologised.

Masako: ... So I changed my values in such a way that teachers don't always have to be correct. ... The change in my values made me feel less hassled.

For Noriko, this adjustment came about through her own learning.

Noriko: ... When we are asked a question that we really do not know the answer to, we can say that we will find out about it and let them know. We should not just try to explain roughly. We need to be able to accept ourselves being unable to answer certain questions.

For Mariko, her adjustment has come about through her reflective thoughts on how her attitude may be perceived differently in a New Zealand classroom. She explained what she had learnt in the classroom.

Mariko: I should have been strict from the beginning. I should not have put on a "Japanese smile."²⁷ ... In Japan teachers are automatically respected. Students follow teachers without being told to do so. Even if teachers sometimes smile in the classroom, students [in Japan] know that the teacher is not smiling because of being very happy. So they don't misbehave just because they saw the teacher smiling. ... Well, I bet my students [in New Zealand] misunderstood me smiling in the classroom.

While these examples describe teacher behaviours, many of the teachers pointed out the adjustments they needed to make to address the differences in values between students in Japan and New Zealand. In Japan, perseverance is a virtue and being hard-working is admired. This is not always the case in New Zealand and therefore teachers needed to adjust their attitudes to meet their students' values. Anzu gave an example of having adjusted her attitudes in the classroom.

²⁷ The book called *Illustrated Living Japanese Style* published by Japan Travel Bureau explains that "it is easy to be misled by the Japanese smile, because as well as expressing happiness or amusement, it is also often used to cover confusion or embarrassment" (p.168). Kishimoto (1967) states that "the Japanese have developed a complicated emotional structure of personality—probably to the degree that it is not easy for the outsider to understand it fully" (p.118). He points out the so-called Japanese "poker face" which is used to hide strong emotional feelings. Smiling is therefore used "to keep the mind calm and balanced, and to observe the situation objectively," which he explains is cultural tradition.

Anzu: There is a Japanese saying, “Good medicine tastes bitter in the mouth.” This means that good advice is often unpleasant and difficult to accept. Well, I found that students in New Zealand do not understand this meaning because they believe that my good advice, “Study hard!” must be pleasant to create an enjoyable moment. “Studying time is fun time” for them; therefore I always need to cheer them up. I often say to them, “You are really doing well today,” “Let’s try hard. We can do it,” and “You will get some prizes after this fun game.”

Teachers therefore found it necessary to adjust their attitudes and values when working as teachers in New Zealand in order to avoid causing confusion among students. Furthermore, many of the teachers found that students in New Zealand are not as bound by hierarchy, as they are in Japan, and that they have more freedom to ask questions and challenge their teachers in class. Therefore native speaker teachers of Japanese need to learn how to give a clear response to their students in an appropriate way (see the section “Classroom Management in New Zealand Schools” in this chapter for more discussions).

(ii) Adjustment in Attitudes and Values as a Second Language Teacher in New Zealand

Several teachers stressed that language teachers should be tolerant towards questions that their students ask. According to these teachers, students who are learning a second language may sometimes need to ask trivial questions in class, unlike in other classes of core subjects such as English or Maths, because language studies partly involve childhood learning.

Noriko’s explanation indicated the changes in her values as a teacher of Japanese as a second language through teaching non-native Japanese students.

Noriko: I often have a couple of students who ask me a basic question which I expect most students already know the answer to. The question is too simple to answer so that some teachers might think that the student is not very clever. This should not happen with language teachers. We need to think why the student could not understand it.

A couple of other teachers also indicated that they had a point of view similar to Noriko’s.

Momoko: *It may be only me feeling this way, but I found that the students who study languages tend to seek more attention. ... They ask me various kinds of questions about Japan and the language. They ask me small questions maybe because I am a native speaker teacher. ... I need to pay more attention to them and deliver classes according to their needs.*

In this way, native speaker teachers of Japanese were required to change their attitudes and values not only as a teacher in New Zealand but also as a second/foreign language teacher. They needed to prepare for students in New Zealand who make frequent interactions with their teachers in an equal manner. They also needed to meet the demands of students who are learning Japanese as a second/foreign language.

This section explored how teachers made adjustments to adapt themselves to the new environment. Firstly, they worked on organising curriculum resources to meet the needs of both students and themselves. Secondly, some adjustments were made in their attitudes and values to create a more effective teaching environment for students. The next section explores adjustments that teachers made in terms of pedagogical practices, and discusses how they applied the pedagogies learned to the actual teaching settings.

2. Adjusting Pedagogical Practices

This section comprises other adjustments that most of the teachers made in relation to teaching methods and teaching styles. Many of the teachers noted that adjusting teaching methods was fundamental in order to teach in New Zealand schools.

a) Resources Available to Learn Teaching Methods

Given that different teaching styles were not unexpected, teachers were able to describe ways in which they had adjusted their teaching methods accordingly. The adjustments that they made varied across individual teachers; however, the first step was to learn about teaching methods through various resources available to them. The resources included courses where they learned how to teach foreign/second languages, class observations, and the information from colleagues and the New Zealand Japanese Language Network. Most of the teachers were found to be involved in learning new teaching methods with new resources.

(i) Learning from the Courses and Observations

Participating in professional development courses is one of the ways that many teachers learn teaching methods to develop their teaching skills. Some of the teachers had also attended a course at a College of Education or at a University to obtain a teaching qualification beforehand. In some cases, teachers had learnt foreign/second language teaching methods in Japan as a student learning to become a language teacher or as a new teacher of a language school. Among those teachers, a few of them found that the language teaching methods that they had learnt in Japan were obsolete and different from what they learned in New Zealand, while others remarked that some of them were found to be useful and applicable to teaching in New Zealand.

Masako and Miyoko indicated that what they learned in New Zealand was new and useful to them to put into practice.

Masako: I learned teaching methods mainly through teaching sections at the College of Education. ... I found that many of the teaching methods were different from what I knew. ... I have been trying out new teaching methods.

Miyoko: I found it very useful to attend a course on language teaching methods [in New Zealand]. It was not particularly for teaching Japanese but for teaching various languages. The facilitator of the course that I attended was actually an English teacher and she taught us some methods in which students can enjoy learning languages.

While some teachers found it useful to attend such courses, others expressed slightly different opinions.

Ayame: [The value of the courses] depends on time and the contents. It would not be interesting to hear only the results of research. I find it very useful if the course gives us something that we can put into practice in teaching straight away, such as another way of teaching or interesting teaching materials.

In addition to attending courses, teachers had opportunities to observe other teachers' classes. Some of them observed classes as part of the professional practice at the College of Education, while others did observations organised by the educational institutions where they were enrolled as a student or where they were employed as a teacher. There were also several cases in which teachers went to observe classes that

were introduced by the Japanese teachers' network. In most cases these observations provided examples that would be useful to incorporate.

Masako: ... *I was fortunate that I had opportunities to observe various kinds of other classes at different schools during my teaching practices.*

Mariko: *When I just started teaching [in New Zealand], I went to observe some classes at various schools. I was introduced to some teachers for observations by the Japanese teachers' network.*

Noriko: *For teaching preparation, I observed some classes [at New Zealand schools] before I actually started teaching. I wondered how I could teach students if I had to follow their styles. I thought to myself, "Can they really understand?" ...*

In one case, the observations provided examples that would be best to avoid.

Fujiko: ... *On the other hand, I found that some teachers were conservative in such a way that their teaching was teacher-centred and one sided; therefore there was no reaction from students and the classes were not interactive at all. There were no activities involving students in thinking about something or engaging in a group activity. All they did was to supply new vocabulary and grammatical points and let students do some tasks such as solving questions. It was more like the Japanese style of teaching and I thought it would not work for me.*

(ii) Learning from the Network of Teachers

In addition to taking development courses and observing other classes, several teachers noted that there were other resources available. Some of them remarked that having their colleagues was especially valuable for learning new teaching methods.

Momoko: *It was good for me to get to know other teachers who knew various kinds of teaching methods. I found that effective methods differ with the individual teacher. When we teach exactly the same content in class, for example, some draw pictures to explain, while others use cards for practice. ... It is useful to find out different kinds of teaching methods used in teaching.*

Lisa: *I learned some new teaching methods from my colleagues who were more experienced than me. What I had learnt in Japan [to become a language teacher] was useful, but I found that it was important to learn appropriate ways to teach in New Zealand.*

Other teachers remarked that they often see some Japanese teachers presenting useful information at conferences. Through such opportunities, they learn new teaching methods from the network of teachers. There are also cases that teachers learn teaching methods from Japanese language advisors to the New Zealand Japanese Language Network. Shin gave one of the examples of how he started to use one such teaching method.

Shin: I have started using a method of learning Hiragana [Japanese alphabet] using the body that was introduced by Kiwi teachers. ... Actually I have used this method before but left it for quite some time. I was reminded by a Japanese language adviser that it might be a good idea to use it again.

To summarise, there have been many resources available for beginning teachers to learn teaching methods in New Zealand. Teachers learn teaching methods mainly through teachers' development courses and observing other teachers' classes. They remarked that they also learned from their colleagues and Japanese language advisors through the New Zealand Japanese Language Network (see also the section "Recognition of Helpful Strategies" in this chapter). The availability of different resources helped teachers to feel comfortable to work as immigrant teachers in a foreign context, and more importantly, enabled them to adapt well what they had learnt in order to use appropriate teaching methods.

b) Strategies Used to Adjust Teaching Methods

As many of the teachers revealed, they were surrounded by various opportunities to learn new methods and adjust their teaching methods. Teachers were able to find ways to apply the methods learned to the actual teaching settings. These were different according to the level of students, the size of classes and the balance of the content of each lesson.

Examples of the strategies commonly used by many of the teachers were described by Masako and Teru.

Masako: I have been trying out introducing new teaching styles to myself such as brainstorming which is not at all familiar in the Japanese teaching system. I am also trying out methods such as group work in various ways at the moment.

I also want to introduce learning styles such as problem solving or critical thinking that I have observed in other teachers' classes.

Teru: I introduced various activities such as playing games. I often use pictures for listening comprehension. I also use the computer and try my best to make my class enjoyable.

Kaori and Anzu further explained what had worked well for them.

Kaori: I often ask my students to draw a picture and use it for description. It is for practice in using new words and phrases. Some people in Japan may criticise what I do, because drawing is one of the typical activities in the kindergarten, not at secondary school.

Anzu: I found that students like to challenge and compete with others. Therefore, I often introduce some activities in which they can compete with their classmates. For example, it worked well when I asked them to say the days of the week to practise in Japanese as quickly as possible.

In terms of the balance of the content of each lesson, Ayame represented the point of view of many of the teachers.

Ayame: If I want to make my class enjoyable and interesting, I put a couple of activities in one period, dividing them into fifteen minutes each. I try to do various activities, not do the same activity all the time. ... One class lasts either fifty minutes or fifty-five minutes. So I divide the class content into three or four activities. I often let them talk and make sure everyone speaks at least once a lesson.

Teachers recognised that effective ways to manage their teaching included making classes enjoyable and catering to the individual learning needs of students.

Teru: Each student is different, for example, in the way of learning and the way of processing what they have learnt. Some learn better by writing, while others learn better by listening. That's why we teachers introduce various activities so that students are given the opportunity to find the way in which they can learn most effectively. Through participating in class activities, they also learn how to approach learning languages.

In order to meet the students' needs in language classes, most of the teachers found it necessary to offer a variety of learning activities in the classroom. They did trial and error experiments to introduce new teaching methods in class and learned how to

adjust the methods accordingly. Several teachers described some of the activities that they found the most popular among students.

Yurie described an example of an activity: *One of the activities that I found most popular was describing people. This activity is to teach how to use adjectives such as “Eyes are big,” or “Hair is long.” First of all, I say to my students, “Yesterday I saw a person from another planet and you saw him, too.” Then I ask them to draw a picture of a person. I tell them that his appearance could be outrageous. I also ask them to describe the person using the adjectives learned on a separate sheet of paper. Then I collect their drawings and put them on the whiteboard so that everyone can see all the drawings. I also collect the descriptions and start reading one of them. I ask them to match the description with one of the pictures. In this kind of activity, they can concentrate very well and enjoy learning.*

Anzu described the way to teach *Hiragana* characters.

Anzu: *When I teach Hiragana to my students, I teach them some associated sentences at the same time. We play cards to learn Hiragana. To start with, they look at each picture card on which a character is also written, and then they listen to me saying a sentence. For example, to learn き(ki) character, the picture drawn on the card is the key and the sentence goes like “ki for key to lock the door.” When they found the card on which き(ki) is written, they compete to pick it up.*

Shin explained another example of how to teach *Hiragana* effectively in the classroom.

Shin: *I have so far had good outcomes from using this method. ... It is a dance, I suppose. It is more like aerobics, I would say. We dance listening to the music. Mostly I do this on the first day so that I can make my students excited to learn. I again repeat it on the second day and it is ok. But then after that, the students gradually become less interested in doing that because it is always the same thing. So I have to change the way slightly each time we do this dancing session. I change the music and the way of dancing. I ask them to shake their hips. Then I ask them to go around in the classroom like Mick Jagger. I try this way and that way.*

In keeping with the idea that teachers develop through stages (Katz, 1972; Maynard and Furlong, 1995), these teachers described how their adjustments developed gradually through their learning and teaching experiments in the actual classroom. As

observed in the case of Shin, the methods were revised and modified to become part of the original methods of individual teachers who were now in a consolidation stage.

Other examples of the adjustments appropriate to teachers who had consolidated their position were those describing age appropriate changes.

Mariko: I found that there was a big difference between older students and younger students. For younger ones, I introduced lots of games which worked very well. They followed me well.

Ayame: ... We also do short ones called a short skit. Year 9 and Year 10 students like to act out a drama. My students normally think of it by themselves. ... I sometimes pick up some topics for my students like the weather so that they can learn extra. ... Especially Year 9 students are very keen on speaking.

Shin: When they become Year 12 or 13, they become busier than before as they have to balance several subjects. ... They prefer to work individually, so I give them different work to do. I found that older students demand a different way of learning and that they start going at their own pace.

Shin also added that the classes of older students such as Year 12 and 13 are often combined because of the smaller number of students. Some of the other teachers explained that they needed to make some adjustments for teaching combined classes. This was not always easy.

Kyoko: I found that it is often difficult to teach a combined class because I needed to provide two kinds of activities at the same time. For example, after giving some instructions to the group from Year 12 that they need to open the textbook, look up unknown words, copy them in the notebook, and create some sentences using those words, I quickly go to the other group from Year 13 to check their homework such as compositions that they have written and to facilitate their discussions to exchange their opinions.

Teachers adjusted teaching methods and teaching styles according to what they had learnt from the resources available. As they continued to teach, they became able to work out what kind of teaching methods and teaching styles would suit Japanese language teaching. Many of the teachers continued to describe some of the examples that they had found effective to maintain students' interests in learning Japanese.

These examples are illustrated in detail in the section “Encouraging Students to Learn Japanese” in Chapter Nine.

c) Team Teaching

In addition to adapting new teaching strategies, my participant teachers described their reactions to the New Zealand convention of team teaching in teaching languages. They had experienced two main forms of team teaching in New Zealand: one was to teach in a pair with a local Japanese non-native speaker teacher and the other was to teach in a team with other native/non-native speaker teachers.

(i) Different Types of Team Teaching

One of the teaching styles that teachers had experienced in New Zealand was to help local Japanese non-native speaker teachers in the classroom. This teaching style is also observed at high schools in Japan where native speaker teachers help local Japanese teachers to teach English (Richards and Farrell, 2005). Although the main purpose of this type of team teaching is to assist local teachers, teachers interviewed found it helpful for learning various teaching strategies. For instance, Sakura and Saki described how helpful they had found the team teaching that they experienced at secondary school.

Sakura: I worked as an assistant teacher in team teaching. ... When I think about it now, the teacher was very supportive because he/she answered any questions that I asked. I learned various teaching methods from him/her that suit different conditions in the New Zealand classroom.

Saki: In team teaching, you can learn different points of view from your partner. I found that as long as the teachers in a team get along well, we can get more benefits from working together [than working alone].

Another type of team teaching that teachers had experienced was to teach a unit with involvement of more than two teachers. This teaching style which is often used at tertiary institutions in New Zealand was described by Kaori.

Kaori: At that time, several teachers were in charge of teaching each unit. For example, on Mondays one teacher teaches mainly new vocabulary and grammatical points. On Tuesdays, another teacher delivers a conversation class using the learned vocabulary. Then on Wednesdays, the next teacher gives a

session in which students practise how to use idioms and expressions in conversations. On Fridays, the other teacher reviews the unit and so on.

Lisa noted that this type of teaching can be stressful because there were time restrictions for each section.

Lisa: In team teaching, we have to follow the schedule. For instance, we need to finish teaching the part that is scheduled to be taught on a certain day. If we could not finish teaching on that day, we must let the next teacher know about it so that we can ask him/her to cover the part that we missed teaching. I feel a bit stressed in team teaching because I must always be aware of what I have to cover during the given class period.

This team teaching style is similar to Thiessen's (1992) approach known as classroom-based teacher development, in which he argues that teacher development is enhanced when two or more teachers form partnerships to work on strategies and resources, compare ideas on the structure in topics and approaches, and evaluate their work (see the section "Different Theoretical Approaches to Understanding Teacher Development," Chapter Two). While my participant teachers indicated that for some of them team teaching helped their development especially at the beginning. Some noted that they also found disadvantages to team teaching.

(ii) The Advantages and Disadvantages of Team Teaching

During interviews teachers pointed out both positive and negative aspects in team teaching. Lisa represented the positive opinion that she had found in team teaching as a beginner teacher.

Lisa: On the other hand, it was a good opportunity to learn new teaching strategies or to receive some advice from other teachers because they also knew exactly what was going on.

This positive view on team teaching was identified in Lang's (1999) study that joint planning and teaching bring practical learning opportunities to help familiarise beginning teachers with school curriculum.

Masako, however, pointed out the negative aspect of team teaching which involved several teachers.

Masako: *I think it is good to have a different opinion from others. However, in the case of team teaching, if each teacher has a different point of view and insists on doing what he/she wants, it becomes difficult to work together.*

Kazuya experienced team teaching in both Japan and New Zealand. He described his experience as a local teacher in Japan working with an English-speaking assistant teacher.

Kazuya: *In Japan I was teaching about forty-five students in one class; therefore, having a native speaker assistant teacher was very helpful. Although we spent quite a long time to organise each class, it was worth getting some help from him/her because it was good for my students to learn from a native speaker teacher, and the two of us sometimes shared the work so that I could reduce my workload.*

His description of the flexibility required when team teaching in New Zealand supports the view of most teachers in this research that they had to make considerable adjustments to teach to a flexible curriculum.

Kazuya: *I found that team teaching in New Zealand required more flexibility of me as an assistant teacher. Because each teacher in New Zealand has his/her own teaching style and is also flexible in his/her teaching, I needed to change my ways of helping to teach according to the individual teacher. I spent more time organising classes than I did in Japan.*

This flexibility was not available, however, when team teaching involved in units.

Kaori: *Even if the weather is so good that it makes me feel like teaching about the weather, I must finish the part which is allocated to teach for the class period. Therefore, we become kind of rushed to finish the scheduled teaching, telling the students that we have to do the other things later or next time.*

While some teachers liked the freedom in teaching at secondary school in New Zealand (see the sections “Differences in Curriculum Resources” and “Differences in Pedagogical Practices,” Chapter Six), they noted that this was not always the case in team teaching. Some teachers confessed that they had found no freedom or flexibility in team teaching, and therefore changed to choose a workplace in which they could teach independently.

Furthermore, teachers pointed out that they found it more difficult to see the contribution that they had made in team teaching. When they taught independently without involving any other teachers, they could clearly see how much they had worked for their students, especially when their students made some progress and produced good results. Further discussion regarding team teaching continues in the section “Important Work Conditions for Teaching in New Zealand,” Chapter Nine (see also the section “Involving Both Native and Non-native Speakers in Teaching” in this chapter).

Most of the teachers interviewed were able to find ways in which they adjusted their teaching methods and teaching styles to meet students’ needs. They used the strategies described above and the majority of teachers suggested that a variety of activities should be introduced according to the classroom conditions of classes.

3. Classroom Management in New Zealand Schools

Classroom management is one of the teaching aspects that many teachers noted as an issue for them. Almost all of the secondary school teachers interviewed experienced difficulties in classroom management especially at the start of their career (see the section “Classroom Management,” Chapter Six). Similarly, many of the teachers at tertiary educational institutions experienced such difficulties in management, especially new entrant students. As they continued teaching, they generally learned and improved their skill in classroom management. Some teachers were still in a classroom management course to improve their skill and others mentioned that they had less difficulty in classroom management because they were teaching at a high decile²⁸ school.

a) Learning the Strategies from the Resources Available

In order to improve their skill in classroom management, teachers learned strategies from various resources available. One was through courses such as teacher training sections and professional development courses. For example, Emi found that her

²⁸ The decile rating of a school depends on the average socio-economic situation of the students at that school. Deciles range from one to ten, with one having the highest percentage of students from low socio-economic backgrounds and ten having the highest percentage of students from high socio-economic backgrounds. The rating is purely to aid the government funding process, and does not reflect the quality of the education offered at the school.

teacher training sections gave her valuable opportunities to learn management skills through practical teacher training.

Emi: Through the College, I went to teach at a school as a trainee teacher. I especially asked for a school where I could learn classroom management. As I had requested, one of my classes [for a training section] was made up of students with behavioural problems. My associate teacher was very helpful and taught me how to handle those difficult students. That was good because I now seldom see myself in a situation that is harder than the one I had in teacher training.

Once they started working as a teacher, they were given many opportunities to attend professional development courses to improve their teaching, including management skill.

Saki: I took a course on class management twice for two days each. I learned, for example, that I must not ignore anything, even the small things.

Chiharu: I went to a workshop for classroom management once. I heard [there] that it is not a good idea to give detention many times because it destroys the school environment. The presenter stressed that it is important to build student self-confidence through positive reinforcement.

In addition to the courses that they attended, some of the teachers confessed that they had asked for the opportunity to observe other classes, by which they were able to learn practical strategies.

Mariko: ... At that time, I went to observe some classes at various schools. I found that the teachers were very firm so that their students behaved very well.

Fujiko: The good teachers are very energetic in class and keen to teach students in an appropriate manner.

Several teachers suggested some other ways to improve classroom management.

Kazuya: I often read books on classroom management and apply them to the actual situations in the classroom.

Chiharu: I borrowed from one of my senior teachers a set of videos and materials which tell you what to do for classroom behaviour management. I learned from that video, which showed useful techniques step by step.

A few teachers remarked that they had gradually learnt skills through handling problems, and also did continuous trial and error experiments to use particular management techniques. Other resources available included learning directly from senior teachers and conversations with other colleagues.

b) The Effect of not Managing a Classroom

In spite of the continuous efforts that teachers made, some teachers still encountered problems. They described the personal cost to them.

Mariko: I was so exhausted from having the Year 9 and 10 students continuously. Especially when I could not manage to deliver a lesson, I felt very bad. I tried various ways to make them quiet. Well, class management especially is still in progress.

Kyoko: I found it difficult when I could not control my class as I wanted. It is not the matter of what I teach. I really feel bad if I can't control my class as it should be. When I had a day when I could not make my class work well, I would find it very hard.

c) Strategies Used to Improve Classroom Management

With the knowledge that they had obtained from the resources available, most of the teachers worked out their own solutions to reduce the difficulties that they faced in the classroom. For instance, some of them found it helpful to inform students of the requirements at the start of the academic year, while others found it useful to set up some rules for students.

Momoko described what she normally does at the start of the academic year.

Momoko: I normally inform my students at the start of the academic year what is required in the classroom. I tell them some rules. For example, I tell them that I don't want them to talk when I am talking during the class time. I also let them know that they need to hand in homework before the due date; otherwise they only get half marks. I am a strict teacher in a way.

Kyoko described how she managed to reduce difficulties in class management by setting up some rules beforehand.

Kyoko: I asked my students to get ready for class by putting their stationery and notebooks on the desk before the class starts. If they failed to do so, they had to write down their names over there where there was a special box. By doing that, they usually remember what they must do beforehand, and some actually realise what they need to do and then quickly put their notebooks on the desk. Another thing is that, for example, I teach them how to copy notes. In the case of Year 9, I ask them to write Hiragana from the back page of the notebook. I have set up various rules that can help students to organise themselves.

Other teachers mentioned that they used some of the techniques to keep students quiet.

Chiharu: Before the class starts, I normally ask my students to line up outside the classroom. Once they become quiet, I ask them, "Are you ready?" and then let them go inside the classroom. If even one of them starts talking, I make it a rule to ask them to line up again. ... Having a naughty chair in the classroom also works well.

Many of the teachers set up rules and asked students to follow the rules in the classroom. The ideas of the rules came from what teachers had observed and what they had learnt from confrontations with their students. Other strategies they had learned included being consistent, being calm and encouraging activities.

Kyoko: Well, I always try to be consistent, not to be changeable. For instance, even when I am in good mood, I will not behave too nicely to students. On the next day, I may be having a bad day, but I try not to show it. I always try to be consistent to myself whatever happens in the classroom.

Rie: We need to be calm when we want them to be quiet. I found that it is also important to look at the students firmly that I am talking to. I tell them what I saw or what they did to make them realise that they did something wrong. I make them think about the situation. I explain why I needed to stop teaching and tell them this. For example, I say to them that they are disturbing other classmates. ...

Kazuya: Initially I shouted aloud to try to make my students quiet. It worked quite well but only for a moment. I soon realised that it will not work after all. I found that making them busy with fun activities is the best way to make them quiet and well-behaved.

Saki added that she would ask for help from senior teachers when she encountered serious problems.

Saki: ... *Especially junior students are hard ones to handle. I still have days when I cannot manage well. ... If I could not control them by myself, I could call for a senior teacher to give students a severe warning.*

Chiharu represented the view of a number of teachers that they often used detention for classroom behaviour management.

Chiharu: *For instance, I complain to my students the next day. I tell them "I am so disappointed at how you behaved yesterday. ... OK, ah, we are going to see how we can do better today, and maybe today we are going to put up [sic: with it for], say, five minutes. Let's see how we can work this time. If you make a noise, then we stay for five minutes at interval or lunch time. If you can listen better, maybe you can work this out [sic: said in English]."*

Generally, most teachers found it very difficult to manage classes at the start of their career. Some of them improved their skill through working it out for themselves such as setting up rules. There were other teachers who attended courses/workshops to learn this skill, and observed other classes to find out strategies to cope with the problem of classroom management. Some of them indicated that classroom management still occupies one of the areas that they need to improve in their teaching.

d) Understanding Cultural Differences to Manage Classes

Teachers pointed out cultural differences between Japan and New Zealand which they believed affected classroom management. As described in the section "Classroom Management" in Chapter Six, it can be observed that the perceptions of the status of teachers in Japan and New Zealand are different. The positioning of teachers in Japan is very much influenced by Confucianism, and with this concept teachers are automatically respected. However, this is not the case in New Zealand and teachers find that they have to keep on reminding students who is in charge.

Shin: ... *To be successful in being in charge of such a class, I must let them know that I am the skipper and their teacher so that they must listen to me and behave themselves. Otherwise, the class will become chaotic sooner or later.*

Several teachers commented that they found it more difficult to handle some students in New Zealand than they had expected. This was because they had not expected students to challenge their position. Anzu, for instance, had never expected that high

school students would use the issue of financial support to make excuses for avoiding doing homework. Anzu had to confront the student to make progress.

Anzu: So one of my students told me that he/she did not have time to do homework because of his/her part-time job. I said to him/her, "You must make time, or you don't go to work." Then he/she said, "But, I am earning money to support myself." So I said, "If your parents cannot support you, you don't have to come to school and you rather need to work for forty hours a week rather than attending school. Then you can make a living." After spending some time on this discussion, the student eventually did his/her homework and showed it to me.

Similarly, Kaori described how she had to confront a student who challenged her position as a teacher.

Kaori: The customs are different and they respect individuals [in New Zealand]. Students tend to just ask any questions anytime in class. Because of such an environment, some students cannot concentrate on their work or they are not listening to what I say. One time I told a student who repeatedly asked me the same question that I would not repeat my explanation any more because I had already explained it enough. He/she then started telling me, "The teacher's job is to teach. Why are you not teaching us?" So I said to him/her, "You are not listening to me? Your job is to listen. Your job is to listen to the teacher and to study. You are not doing your job. You also did not show me your homework that you were supposed to do by today. You did not bring your notebook, either." Well, some students have somewhat different sense from mine. From my point of view, they are not really talking to "the teacher." They want to stand on the same level as teachers. I therefore need to speak to them like this sometimes.

Because of the cultural differences between Japan and New Zealand, teachers often found that difficulties they had to handle stemmed from discrepancies in expectations and cultural differences in values between students and themselves. These teachers had to adjust their teaching methods to handle such discrepancies.

Furthermore, most of the teachers encountered differences in attitudes and behaviours of students in New Zealand and mentioned how difficult it was to receive negative comments/feedback directly from their students.

Kyoko: I was not used to receiving negative comments/feedback straight from the students at school. They don't normally do that in Japan.

Teachers gradually learned that they needed to change their response to the comments/feedback and accept them and make good use of them to improve some aspects of their teaching.

Kyoko: ...but I found that they also give me some motivation to teach.

Similarly, a couple of teachers explained that they found it useful to receive feedback from their students because it became clear what they needed to do next. In most cases teachers received direct comments/feedback including positive and negative comments from their students. In this way, teachers gradually made some adjustments to improve their way of managing classes.

e) Reducing Difficulty in Classroom Management

While most teachers improved the skill in classroom management as they continued to teach and learned new strategies. Some did not have many difficulties in class management. This was often due to the socio-economic status of the school's roll by decile.

Fujiko: My school is in a high decile which means that the conditions at my school are a lot better than the average. For instance, I found that the parents are keen on education and that the students at my school perform better in the academic area. ... Because of having such an environment, I don't feel much stress at school.

Many of the teachers remarked that the students' abilities also influence their classroom management.

Yurie: Those students who are keen on learning normally take Japanese, I believe. That's why there is no problem with class management for me.

Shin: Japanese is not a core subject but an optional one. ... Compared to the compulsory subjects such as Maths and English, I found that the students who choose Japanese are the ones with positive attitudes [in learning].

Furthermore, a couple of teachers explained about school regulations such as the code of conduct, which they found most helpful.

Chiharu: I think that different schools set different rules and regulations for classroom behaviour management. My school is very strict and students have to go through each step of punishment if they misbehave. Those punishments are detailed and clarified, and the school lets students and parents know what would ultimately happen. Also, I see lots of posters on the wall at school, which give special warnings to students about their behaviour. In spite of our school having a fairly low decile, I found that our students behave reasonably well because of such constant warnings given by school.

While some teachers described strategies they had learned and engaged to deal with classroom management problems, others did not experience any problems in classroom management. According to these teachers, structural issues to do with the school and students: high decile, school code, or students of high ability removed the need to use individual classroom management strategies.

f) Consistency of the Present Study with the Literature on Classroom Management

Literature suggests that classroom management is one of the most challenging areas in teaching in the process of teacher development (Bezzina, 2006; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986). Many studies have been conducted to identify the factors that influence classroom management, such as teachers' sense of efficacy (Lang, 1999; Woolfolk, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990), teacher characteristics and teaching styles (Opdenakker and Damme, 2006). The teacher's sense of efficacy implies that the teacher believes in his/her own ability to help students succeed in learning and to deal with problem behaviour. One study confirmed that the teacher's belief had a positive effect on student learning (Woolfork, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990). In a study on the experiences of New Zealand beginning teachers, the teacher's own self concept and feelings of self-efficacy were identified as important factors to help teachers cope with a range of difficulties and therefore survive in teaching (Lang, 1999). My participant teachers' experiences supported these finding when they provided some examples of disciplining students and explaining what they believed to work well in class management. They remarked that even though they sometimes have to confront misbehaving students, it is most likely that the students would improve their behaviour because the teachers adopted different expectations.

One study was conducted from the students' perspective and found that students' perceived that effective teachers set early, clear expectations and consequences, and enforced a consistent standard in their management system (Cothran, Kulinna, and Garrahy, 2003). In these respects, my participant teachers met the students' needs as a teacher. In the case of Momoko, for instance, she had her students know the rules for the course of study once the academic year started. Kyoko and Chiharu as well set up rules for students to follow in the classroom. Kyoko especially emphasised that she always tried to be consistent in front of students whatever happened in the classroom and regardless of how she was feeling. More discussions continue in the section "Managing Classes through Communication" in Chapter Eight with respect to the relationships between teachers and students, and the importance of good communication.

The following section focuses on the helpful strategies that teachers recognised in the process of becoming a teacher. Most of the teachers emphasised the importance of getting support in a collegial and collaborative work environment.

4. Recognition of Helpful Strategies

As shown in the above, the main aspects in teaching that teachers made adjustments to were related to curriculum resources, pedagogical practices, and teachers' attitudes and values. In accordance with the adjustments that they made and the changes that they accepted, many of the teachers learned to adapt themselves to the environment at school. Most of them indicated that the process of adaptation was largely supported by the people around them. They emphasised that getting support from others in the school and colleagues was very important for them to start as a new teacher to fit the New Zealand school system.

a) Getting Support

Many of the teachers remarked that they received good support from their school, which helped them to adapt to their school culture. Many teachers expressed that they were fortunate to receive professional support from the principal, colleagues and other teaching staff. They showed their appreciation and commented that they were receiving good support from their schools in general.

Saki: *I think that I am getting good support at school. There are nice people around. In addition, our principal is very gentle and supportive.*

Fujiko: *The principal of my school is very good. ... He/She has a good reputation among the teaching staff because of the good treatment he/she gives to us. I consider it to be one of the best conditions that I have at school.*

Fujiko described an example of how she received extra good support from her school to continue her qualifications.

Fujiko: *... I was actually teaching when I was studying to get a qualification. When it was exam time, I had to be absent from school and go to the university to sit for exams. My school supported me and encouraged me to go. When some on-campus events were on, I could also get permission from my school to attend even during the teaching term.*

Shin described how he receives support from his school for report writing.

Shin: *... I finished writing the reports for juniors, that are for Year 9 and 10, yesterday. I typed them on my computer and sent them to the teacher in charge of corrections, so that my reports are to be corrected and sent back to me soon. He will check and correct my English.*

Several teachers indicated that their colleagues were important to them because they share their experiences happening at school. In the case of Kyoko, for example, who gave me an opportunity to observe her class, I saw that one of her colleagues came in at the interval and started talking to her. It was a French teacher who was teaching in the classroom next door. She asked Kyoko how she was getting on in her classes. They were sharing the incidents that happened in the classroom and how to get rid of their frustrations after school. Anzu explained that she was in the similar situation to Kyoko.

Anzu: *There is a French teacher at my school who supports me in various ways. One of the things that she often helps me with is in regard to the content of my class. She taught me various kinds of games that I could use for teaching Japanese. I did not know about the use of games in the classroom very much and she told me that I could use her teaching materials by converting them into Japanese versions.*

Shin also emphasised the importance of receiving support from colleagues.

Shin: ... As long as you work at a school, the school is your workplace and it becomes your base. You need support all the time especially when you are stuck. You can support each other and help each other. You do not receive other people's help all the time, but you can also help others. You don't receive all the time but also give to others sometimes. You have to share affection with others.

Some of the teachers found that it was valuable to receive some advice from the more experienced teachers.

Lisa: During the first year of my teaching, I had many difficulties. I sometimes got stuck and did not know what to do. My colleagues who were more experienced than me gave me a lot of advice. It was really good to have those colleagues because I could learn lots of things from them.

Chiharu: In my case, I often get some advice from an English teacher who teaches next door. She often teaches me some techniques and I write down the points that she talks about. ... Also, the teacher who used to teach Japanese before me came to see me once a week during the first term. I have heard that he/she now works as a community adviser.

In this way, most of the teachers emphasised that receiving support was important for adapting to their schools. Several teachers expressed that they also found it important to get some support from outside school. They remarked that, for instance, having a Japanese teachers' network was especially meaningful in terms of sharing practical information and improving their professional skills (see also the section "Resources Available to Learn Teaching Methods" in this Chapter). Mariko and Kyoko described the usefulness of having a network among Japanese teachers.

Mariko: I can seek advice or borrow some teaching materials from other teachers. Some of the teachers in the network also introduced me to other schools so that I was able to visit and observe other teachers' classes.

Kyoko: I go to the Japanese teachers' meeting every month. I also attend a Japanese native speaker teachers' meeting that is held twice a year. ... I still have many things that I do not know yet in teaching. It is good to attend those meetings to learn something useful because I think if you become better in teaching, students will follow you and enjoy learning as well.

Other teachers explained that they had a mentor who gave some advice to them.

Rie: I found that it is important to have someone that you can talk to about your problems at work. I sometimes see a person who I believe is my mentor. He/she knows about schools but is not really connected with my school. I can often come up with some good solutions by talking to him/her.

b) Involving Both Native and Non-native Speakers in Teaching

In the section “Language Barrier” in the previous chapter, teachers implied that team teaching which involves English speaking teachers is one of the solutions to the difficulty of teaching with their language problem. Furthermore, in this chapter, some teachers described that team teaching helped them to learn new teaching strategies as well as to reduce their workloads. In spite of the disadvantages identified by teachers in team teaching, many of the teachers therefore suggested that team teaching was one of the helpful strategies for Japanese native speaker teachers, especially when they worked with English speaking colleagues. They emphasised that the advantages of using both native and non-native speaker teachers in a classroom should be utilised to perform effectively in the classroom.

Several teachers described that Japanese native speaker teachers could provide cultural aspects to students.

Kyoko: ... I believe that there is something that we can convey as a native speaker such as cultural aspects. I thought that just looking at me would help students to know what kind of people Japanese are. In this sense, I have something that I can do. That's what I think.

Similarly, Kaori remarked that she can give first-hand accounts of living in Japan to students.

Kaori: ... I often compare New Zealand culture to Japanese culture and I believe that it is convincing for me to explain to them [students] what the differences are. I can tell them what it used to be like in Japan and what it is like in Japan now. I can also explain to them how we do it in New Zealand in contrast to how they do it in Japan. The comparison that I make is actually based on what I experienced in both countries as a Japanese native speaker person, not just on what I have heard.

By making some comparisons in cultural aspects, teachers could explain the facts more deeply as a native speaker and develop the moment for cultural exchange with their students. A few other teachers also emphasised that they are confident in having a profound knowledge of Japanese culture such as Japanese history, Japanese systems, and Japanese manners and customs. From this point of view, it may be argued that native speaker teachers have an advantage because they hold real life experiences.

On the other hand, teachers also valued the advantages that non-native speaker teachers who learned Japanese as a second language could pass on this experience to students.

Kyoko: ... I think it is more meaningful that those teachers who learned Japanese as a second language teach students Japanese, especially the grammatical points, because I believe they can explain more accurately.

Some of the teachers found that non-native speaker teachers are not only good at explaining grammatical points but also able to understand their students from the students' point of view. Lisa added more of the merits that non-native speaker teachers have.

Lisa: Unlike native speaker teachers, non-native speaker teachers went through the similar learning process to their students. So they can understand the students' real problems, I suppose. They studied about the culture, so they can explain it objectively. They can also explain about, say, the Japanese people's behaviour from the third person's point of view. All their learning experiences can be the knowledge that they can give to their students.

To summarise, since both native and non-native speaker teachers have advantages and disadvantages in teaching Japanese. Some teachers considered that the most effective ways of teaching should combine both.

Lisa: I think that both native and non-native speaker teachers have their own good points that are quite different from each other. I think it is a good idea for both to teach as a team.

Teachers emphasised that both native and non-native speaker teachers can make up for each other's weaknesses and contribute to effective teaching if they teach as a

team. They also added that it is important for native speaker teachers to keep their cultural identity and to make good use of themselves as part of the teaching resources.

Literature on teacher development suggests that it is important for teachers to maintain a support system which involves school and colleagues (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992), because these supportive environmental conditions enable teachers to perform effectively and to continue to improve their teaching (Hopkins, Beresford, and West, 1998). One study found that teacher development occurs most effectively with a culture of collaboration and that teachers are more inclined to dedicate themselves to the improvement of teaching in the context of supportive collegial relationships (Ibid., 1998). Some studies focused on especially the experience of beginner teachers and suggested that teachers need to receive support to survive and to develop as a teacher during his/her first years of teaching (e.g., Bezzina, 2006; Farrell, 2003). The main findings in these studies indicated that school environments such as a support system, school climate, and staff relations had a great impact on the socialisation of the beginning teachers. In New Zealand, research on experiences of beginning teachers found that the “survival” (Katz, 1977) stage would take no more than the first half academic year of teaching for many New Zealand teachers (Lang, 1999). This was attributed to the system that beginning teachers receive a great amount of support from tutor teachers (for example, mentoring) and the Ministry of Education (for example, a grant support) in the early years of teaching. My participant teachers stressed that they had received various types of support, especially from the principal, colleagues and the network of Japanese teachers, in order to continue to teach in New Zealand schools, which contributed to their teacher development success.

One of the theoretical approaches in teacher development emphasises that teacher development is deeply concerned with personal development (Fessler, 1995). This approach is similar to Super’s theory of life stages, and is known as a humanistic approach in which various personal variables impact upon the career cycle and influence career development. Fessler’s approach was therefore relevant to my research findings and helped me consider how my participant teachers went through the developmental process as immigrant teachers.

Moreover, the systems theory framework was useful to understand my participant teachers' development in teaching. Since my participants were immigrants who had gone through a range of experiences and were exposed to different levels of the acculturation process, it was anticipated that their teacher development process involved more than personal development. In this sense, the process of my participants' development in teaching needed to be considered across the individual, social and environmental/societal systems. My findings highlighted that while participant immigrant teachers were developing personally, they were being influenced by a range of factors, including beliefs, values, skills and ethnicity (that is, the individual systems); family, the workplace and the educational institutions (that is, the social systems); and historical trends, globalisation and socioeconomic status (that is, the environmental/societal systems).

Research on acculturation suggests that when immigrants go through the process of acculturation, they adopt two main strategies: "cultural maintenance" that refers to the extent to which cultural identity is important to individuals; and "contact and participation" that refers to the extent to which individuals become involved in other cultural groups (Berry and Sam, 1997). Many studies suggested that the degree of adaptation of immigrants is significantly related to outcomes of migration (Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward, 2007; Sayegh and Lasry, 1993; Ward and Kennedy, 1994). For instance, in a study conducted among Chinese immigrants in New Zealand, those immigrants who experienced the difficulties in adaptation developed serious psychological disturbances or mental disorder (Abbott, Wong, Williams, Au, and Young, 1999). Further, a study conducted among Russian-speaking immigrants in New Zealand revealed problems among those who had difficulties fitting into New Zealand culture (Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward, 2007).

My participant teachers were immigrant teachers, and as such, they needed to adapt to the school culture as well as the New Zealand culture to fit into the new society and to work as teachers. My findings showed that where they were supported by school, colleagues and the teachers in the network to make adjustments in teaching, they adapted themselves to the New Zealand school system. For example, they adjusted their own cultural values while maintaining them to work effectively in the classroom. Teachers demonstrated that they adjusted well because they had "contact and

participation” (Berry and Sam, 1997) to fit into New Zealand society. They emphasised, however, that part of their successful adaptation involved retaining their cultural values. Their support for using both native and non-native speaker teachers for teaching Japanese allowed this to occur.

5. Summary

It is quite clear that one of the major adjustments for native speaker teachers of Japanese in New Zealand involves accepting the freedom to choose, make and deliver course materials. Another adjustment made was in relation to the attitudes and values of teachers. Because of the significant differences in the aspects of curriculum resources, and teachers’ attitudes and values between Japan and New Zealand, teachers found it necessary to make proper adjustments according to the norms required at school. Most of the teachers were also required to make adjustments in pedagogical practices. Therefore, they learned new teaching methods through resources, such as attending courses, class observations and the network of Japanese teachers. By putting the newly learned teaching methods into practice, they managed to find appropriate ways of teaching Japanese in New Zealand classrooms.

Most of the secondary school teachers remarked that classroom management was the most crucial part of their teaching. Although they usually experienced some difficulties in classroom management at the start of their career, they gradually learned the practical skills to cope with the difficulties they faced. They emphasised that it is important to learn the strategies from the resources available and to understand cultural differences to manage classes. Some teachers pointed out that the socio-economic decile of the school is a reliable measure for predicting the degree of difficulties in class management, while others remarked that it was the abilities of students that influenced the classroom management

This chapter also discussed helpful strategies for native speaker teachers. One of the strategies was to get support from school, colleagues, mentors and other teachers in the network. Another strategy involved making good use of the advantages of both native and non-native speaker teachers. Overall, native speaker teachers interviewed managed to make proper adjustments for the continuation of their teaching.

The next chapter explores what teachers found important in teaching to enable them to teach effectively. It discusses the teacher's roles, the tactics for Japanese language teaching, classroom management skills, and the teachers' perception of being a teacher in New Zealand.

CHAPTER EIGHT: WORKING TOWARDS BEING AN EFFECTIVE JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHER

This chapter examines how Japanese native speaker teachers perceive their role as a teacher and explores what it means to them to teach in New Zealand schools. Metaphor descriptions provided by teachers are introduced to discuss what they believed to be important in order to work effectively as a teacher in New Zealand. The main themes in this chapter that emerged from their interviews include motivating and encouraging students, teaching Japanese as a second/foreign language, managing classes through communication, and being a Japanese native speaker teacher in New Zealand.

1. Motivating and Encouraging Students

During interviews, I asked teachers to elaborate what they had answered in the questionnaire. In addition to those questions, I asked them extra questions that I had prepared in advance to help them expand their ideas (see the Appendix C). The main question was “How did you find your teaching in New Zealand?” When I asked this question during the first several interviews, teachers talked about various things that they found in teaching in New Zealand. When I analysed these first several interviews through coding, I identified some common themes that the teachers had raised in interviews. These included the differences in education between Japan and New Zealand, what is required to be done as a teacher in New Zealand, and the relationships between New Zealand teachers and students. I therefore prepared several extra questions to explore these aspects of teaching in case I needed to help teachers expand their ideas during my forthcoming interviews. Examples of the questions included “What differences in education between Japan and New Zealand have you noticed or experienced?” “What are the things that you believe you should or want to do as a teacher for your students?” and “What sort of relationships do you aim to create between you and your students, and how do you do so?”

One of the main themes raised through conducting twenty-five interviews concerned what teachers believed to be important in order to work as a teacher. Many of the

teachers stressed that the most important thing for them to do was to motivate and encourage students. They remarked that if they successfully motivated their students, they would be able to teach the students effectively. They further explained that it was essential for them to learn new teaching methods and to adopt them when they delivered classes in a variety of activities. Introducing new teaching methods helped not only students to learn effectively but also teachers to maintain their teaching skills.

a) Strategies Used to Motivate and Encourage Students

Some teachers said that they believed it was important for them to convey the message to students that learning is enjoyable.

Yurie: What we language teachers must do is to teach them that learning languages is enjoyable. I don't put it to them that you have to study, but rather demonstrate that learning languages is very useful and practical.

Kyoko: Well, I believe I must always show them that learning is fun. I would always like to tell them that not only learning Japanese but also learning other things can make their life change in an interesting way.

Many of the teachers emphasised that the most important thing to do as a teacher was to motivate their students.

Aiko: ... I think that the most important thing for me to do is to motivate students. It means that we should make our students feel they want to learn.

Fujiko: There are various kinds of teaching methods, but the best thing I believe that "works well," is to motivate students. ... I believe being successful in learning can influence their motivation very much and vice versa.

Several teachers explained how they motivated or encouraged their students in the classroom.

Shin: I believe that both teachers and students need to work together. ... Students need to learn from their teachers how to solve problems and find new ideas. I think that students start showing interest and become able to study hard if we teachers successfully make them motivated.

Teru: *What I do as a teacher is to deliver enjoyable classes with a variety of activities to encourage my students to learn well. If they need to do nothing but listen, they lose interest. If they find it enjoyable to learn, they participate in class voluntarily, which makes it easier for the teacher as well.*

Yurie: *I believe positive reinforcement is very important. We teachers should not express anything anytime in a negative way. For example, if he/she makes a mistake, I put it in a positive way by saying that I really appreciated the mistake he/she had made because it created an opportunity to learn more about it, which is a good thing for everyone. I try to encourage my students in a positive way, praise them very much, and try not to make them feel ashamed ever.*

Similarly, Momoko and Fujiko put emphasis on encouragement in their teaching.

Momoko: *Teaching students means not only giving them knowledge but also encouraging them. ... Their test marks would not improve unless we encourage them and give them moral support. If I gave them only knowledge, it would not work well to help students become successful.*

Fujiko: *There are various things involved in teaching and learning, but I still believe that the most important thing is for each and every student to enjoy learning and feeling good about it and to be motivated to go forward. ... I praise my students as often as possible and we congratulate each other in class when we achieve something or every time we have learnt something new, which might be small in amount. I become part of them to enjoy learning.*

In this way, participants described ways in which they motivated their students because they believed that motivated students were more rewarding to teach. The following section explores what helped teachers to motivate and encourage students and to work effectively as a teacher.

b) Introducing New Teaching Methods

As part of the adjustments teachers made in order to teach in New Zealand schools, they learned to organise the curriculum resources themselves (see the section “Adjustment in Organising Curriculum Resources,” Chapter Seven). Furthermore, teachers noted that it was important to update the curriculum resources and the teaching methods that they used in the classroom. They remarked that they regularly introduced new teaching methods to deliver a variety of activities in the classroom. They believed that using new teaching methods helped not only students to learn well but also teachers to maintain their teaching skills and to work effectively as a teacher.

Fujiko: I believe we need to learn various kinds of new teaching methods rather than sticking to the old teaching styles. I learned a lot of new teaching methods through attending the courses. ... I found that they were useful and practical and that they worked very well in class.

Masako: Sticking to one style of teaching methods is not interesting, either. Some students may drop out if we stick to only one style. Especially those who are not very academically oriented may not follow us teachers. I believe that it is more effective to mix the methods that are already familiar to students with new methods that we have just introduced.

While some teachers mentioned that they regularly attended professional development (PD) courses to learn new teaching methods, others said that they utilised some of the websites that allowed them to access some information on teaching materials, including updated teaching methods. Several teachers said that in addition to exploring such learning opportunities through the internet, they spent some time creating their own teaching styles.

Teru believed that the teachers should customise what they had learnt to suit the needs of their students.

Teru: I have been always thinking about how to teach Japanese in an easier way. Therefore, I constantly create my own teaching materials that best suit my students' needs so that they can learn Japanese well while enjoying my teaching. I think it is important to make students feel that they are having fun. This is good for myself, too, because the student numbers will increase if the students have found it enjoyable to take Japanese, I am sure.

The remarks above suggested that teachers believed that utilising new teaching methods not only enhanced the degree of motivation of students to learn but also helped maintain their own teaching skills. On the other hand, Fujiko identified that another reason for learning new teaching methods is the impression it gives to senior management.

Fujiko: ...one of the criteria for teaching assessment is to see what kind of PD courses we took throughout the year. Without attending any courses at all, the senior management in charge of appraisal would question what we have been doing throughout the year. So we should attend the PD courses provided, and the school also needs to keep on encouraging us to attend courses.

My participant Japanese native speaker teachers recognised two main issues for working effectively as a teacher: one was to motivate and encourage students so as to provide students effective learning opportunities; the other was to introduce new teaching methods to enhance the degree of student motivation as well as to maintain their teaching skills. Interviews also revealed that teachers were aware of the need to learn new teaching methods in relation to the teaching assessment which is part of the requirements for working in New Zealand schools.

In studies on effective teaching, a number of researchers explored strategies for motivating students (Burden, 2000; Cangelosi, 2000; Good and Brophy, 2008; Hardin, 2008). Burden (2000) suggests that enhancing students' motivation enables teachers to increase the positive learning outcomes and decrease classroom management problems. He emphasises that it is important to recognise the merits and limitations of utilising intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and to determine specific strategies for motivating students with regards to the curriculum content and instructions. My findings demonstrated that many of my participant Japanese native speaker teachers put emphasis on creating a learning environment in which they encouraged students to enjoy learning. They worked on motivating students through adopting relevant strategies. They used both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to encourage students' learning, in conjunction with positive reinforcement such as compliments, praise, facial expressions, and attention (Hardin, 2008). My participant teachers found it effective to stimulate these two types of motivations of the students through setting clear objectives (that is, intrinsic motivation) and frequent reinforcement such as prize-giving (that is, extrinsic motivation). They understood the importance of intrinsically motivating students and therefore they made adjustments to update the curriculum resources and teaching methods which helped them deliver a variety of learning activities that attract students' interests.

In New Zealand, teachers are given opportunities to regularly attend professional development courses to learn new teaching methods. My participant teachers took advantage of these opportunities to maintain their teaching skills, and help organise and make their lessons intrinsically motivating. My participants therefore displayed opinions that corroborate the literature on motivation theories. They considered it important for teachers to develop ideas for designing learning activities in which

students become intrinsically motivated to engage in them (Cangelosi, 2000). These teachers believed that their role was to develop an effective teaching environment and to encourage and motivate students. The next section focuses on what Japanese native speaker teachers believed it to be important to work on as a language teacher.

2. Teaching Japanese as a Second/Foreign Language

In language studies students need to work continuously and accumulate knowledge until they reach the point where they gain a certain level of proficiency. In such circumstances the teachers interviewed believed that it was important to set clear objectives for individual students. They also found it necessary to continue to facilitate students' participation in learning Japanese.

a) Setting Up Clear Objectives

According to the teachers that I interviewed, not only does the progress of students in learning a language vary, but also the individuals' goals in learning the language are different from each other. Therefore, they suggested that it is important to set some objectives for individual students. For instance, teachers explain the helpfulness of learning the language, which may help students to explore opportunities for job selection. They also encourage students to understand some of the Japanese cultural aspects which would help them to associate with Japanese people in the future. To begin with, teachers found it helpful to give clear instructions, especially for junior students, in the classroom. Teachers make sure that the students know the objectives for the lesson so that students become aware of the meaning of learning the language and that they feel they have achieved something in class.

Mika: I try to make my class enjoyable especially for juniors. I think that the Japanese language is hard to learn, and the goal is too long to see the outcome quickly. That's why I use some of the activities that enable students to understand what they are doing them for. ... After all, what I often do in the classroom are the things that my students can see the outcome of as quickly as possible.

On the other hand, when students become senior, their academic goals may change to be more specific than at junior levels. Teachers therefore need to pay more attention to the goals and needs of the individual students at senior levels. An example came

from Shin who believed that it is more effective to give a different direction to each student according to the conditions observed.

Shin: I give more homework to those who are doing well. ... I seldom deliver a formal class to Year 12 and Year 13 because each student has his/her own pace to study and they also prefer doing it that way. ... It sometimes happens that one or two students are unable to sit for a test, which makes the situation difficult for me to give them a real assessment. That's why I must ask them what they are up to every time I notice them.

Regarding the goals of students, teachers talked about the fact that they had observed students showing interest in Japanese from different perspectives. They found that some students showed instrumental orientation to learn Japanese such that they were motivated to get some benefits from learning a language.²⁹

Momoko: I think that motivations differ for individual students. I have heard from my students that they are motivated to learn Japanese because they believe that they will be able to find a job more easily if they can speak Japanese.

On the other hand, teachers observed that other students appeared to be more integratively motivated, such that they were more interested in learning about the culture.

Fujiko: I regularly take my students to Japan on a school trip. They may have an ulterior motive such as participating in the school trip.

Saki: We also have a sister school in Japan and the students visit us every year. Our students are very interested in talking to the students from Japan.

Because teachers recognised that goal-directed students were more likely to get engaged in their studies, they set clear objectives related to the students' needs and abilities.

²⁹ The findings in my research on "Motivation and Attitudes in Learning Japanese in New Zealand" showed that motivational variables were powerful predictors of success in learning Japanese and illustrated that both integrative and instrumental orientations were important in learning the language at tertiary levels (Okamura, 1990).

b) Facilitating Students' Participation in Class

It is well-attested that learning a language is a time consuming process and involves tedious work. Teachers therefore facilitated their students' learning by firstly giving them clear objectives. They also believed that one of the most effective ways to direct students to achieve the objectives in learning was to facilitate the students' participation in various class activities.

Kaori: I always make sure that each and every student participates in my class. For example, when they practise speaking, I make sure everyone speaks and no students sleep in class. ... I really care about all the students participating in class so that they can at least see what is involved in learning Japanese.

Many of the teachers found that providing enjoyable class activities helped students to participate in learning.

Mariko: I found that students in New Zealand are used to learning from playing games or fun activities in the classroom. Therefore, I try to choose the most suitable student-centred teaching methods accordingly so that I can make sure that they participate in class.

Ayame: So I provide my students an enjoyable moment in class. I use as many different teaching techniques as possible, which work well to make my students enjoy learning. I often use my facial expressions to draw their attention and make some jokes to help them memorise.

Furthermore, some of the teachers suggested that it is necessary for teachers to change the way they encourage students' participation according to the levels and needs of students.

Teru: I found that the most important thing for junior students is to enjoy participating in classes. I often use positive reinforcement for juniors, for example, giving some prizes. Junior students can continue to learn by finding their classes enjoyable. As they become seniors, their focus changes. They become able to think about themselves and to find what they really want to do. For example, they want to learn practical expressions and more about cultural aspects. Therefore, I encourage them to participate in class according to the student needs.

For some teachers, the best way to facilitate students' participation in class activities was to change activities frequently.

Jiro: During the class time of sixty minutes, I change activities one after another, as often as I can. After they finish the class, they find it quite fun and then they don't mind attending the class again next time.

For other teachers, interactive teaching facilitated participation and learning.

Aiko: I found that interactive teaching or a communicative approach has become the main stream in teaching a language nowadays. I believe that being interactive in class helps not only teachers to teach effectively but also students to learn better.

3. Managing Classes through Communication

As previously indicated (Chapter Six and Chapter Seven), classroom management is one of the main areas in teaching that most teachers found difficult to deal with especially at the beginning of their career. This section explores how Japanese native speaker teachers dealt effectively with classroom management. These strategies included managing classes through maintaining appropriate relationships between themselves and students, and the importance of teachers having good communication skills to work effectively in classroom management.

a) Relationships between Teachers and Students

The main suggestion made by teachers interviewed in relation to classroom management was that it is necessary for teachers to establish appropriate relationships with students. Many of the teachers firstly suggested that knowing about each student helped teachers not only to manage classes according to the students' individual needs but also to develop appropriate relationships with their students.

(i) The Need for Developing Appropriate Relationships

During interviews, the majority of teachers described what they believed to be most effective in working well on classroom management. Rie represented what many other teachers believed regarding classroom management.

Rie: I believe that drawing a line between teachers and students is the best way to manage classes well. I always try to behave as a teacher, being firm in front of my students.

Similarly, some teachers emphasised the importance of positioning of teachers and students, and of establishing a trusting relationship. Such comments also inadvertently reveal the cultural norms of the teachers' country of origin.

Jiro: Students in New Zealand are very casual and do not treat us as a teacher. They try to talk to us as more like a friend. They do not really have the concept of respect. I always need to have my students know that they are in a different position; otherwise they try to put us down onto the same level as them.

Teru: I think that it is important for us to work on establishing appropriate relationships with individual students because it is necessary for students to have a teacher who can be trusted. Through keeping good relationships with students, we teachers can work out what most suits the individual and therefore I can give him/her proper guidance.

(ii) Knowing about Each and Every Student

In order to develop appropriate relationships between teachers and students, teachers suggested that it is essential for them to firstly find out about their students. Many of the teachers believed that knowing about each and every student was the first key to making their class management work well. Yurie stressed that it is necessary for her to understand individual students.

Yurie: You need to carefully look at your individual students. As you continue teaching, you start being able to understand them. Then you become able to treat them in an equal manner. ... I believe that caring about your students is the biggest part of your teaching.

Several teachers also pointed out the importance of knowing about students in terms of their personal backgrounds, such as academic aspiration, proficiency levels, and behavioural problems, to help them work in an appropriate manner.

Anzu: It is important to understand each and every student for me to deliver my lesson in an effective way. I don't get concerned about the family situation of my students so much, but rather try to find out about the characters of the students or the way that they learn effectively so that I can choose the most suitable way of teaching according to individual needs.

(iii) Managing Classes According to Individual Needs

The remarks above suggest that the teachers valued knowing about each student in order to manage classes according to the students' needs. Some teachers further noted

that it is important for teachers to treat students as individuals. They believed that the meaning of equality is not being treated in the same way as others but being treated differently according to the individual needs and abilities. Anzu and Lisa explained this as follows.

Anzu: Every student is different. ... At some point in time I realised that I should deal with my students depending on the individual cases. I should talk in a direct manner in some cases, otherwise the students would not listen to me, while I found it unnecessary to do so for others. I need to choose the most suitable way every time I come across a problem.

Lisa: I understand that praising is one of the ways to encourage students and found that many of my students liked to be praised in front of their classmates. However, I had a student who did not like being praised. The student stopped attending classes for a while after I had praised him/her in class. I realised that the student was a very shy person. This might be just an incident, but it made me realise that I must know about each student in order to manage classes well.

Kazuya explained that acknowledging the students' individual strengths helped him not only develop good relationships with his students but also work on classroom management according to the needs of students.

Kazuya: I make sure that I let each student know that he/she is special. What I mean is that everyone is different, having something that he/she can be proud of. I let each student know that I know his/her strengths. Knowing about the strengths of students helped me to deal with the individual students according to their needs.

In classroom management, therefore, most of the teachers believed that it is effective to work on knowing about each student, establishing appropriate relationships with students, and managing classes according to the individual students' needs.

b) Importance of Communication in Classroom Management

The other issue that teachers brought up during interviews in relation to classroom management concerned communication between teachers and students. Many of the teachers emphasised the importance to them of communicating well to teach at school in New Zealand.

Shin: You have to be a good communicator to deal with the people around and be able to talk about the negative aspects, as it is a fact that nothing is all positive.

Teachers remarked that they are always required to communicate with students because students in New Zealand ask all sorts of questions and express their opinions, while discussion is one of the main methods of teaching. Anzu firstly described what is required in teaching in New Zealand.

Anzu: Teachers in Japan can say, "I taught that," after he/she explained at least once, or students took some notes of what the teacher said. Over here, teaching means not only explaining, but it means getting some reactions such as receiving comments or questions and replying to the questions until the students understand. Only when students become able to describe in their words what we have explained to them, can we say that we have taught them. We have to go through this process in teaching in New Zealand. That's why it is important for teachers to be able to communicate well with students.

In addition, many of the teachers suggested that it is necessary for teachers to perform consistently in the classroom not only to manage their classes well but also to prepare well in case they receive complaints from students. Yurie and Ayame gave examples of how to deal with difficult situations.

Yurie: I do not normally get any complaints because I don't really let them complain to me. But if a student complained, for example, that he/she could not understand me, I would ask another student, "Did you understand me?" In my scenario, it is most likely that the student would say, "Yes," because I pick a student who is doing well. Then, I ask the student, "Why did you understand me?" The student will say, "Because I was listening." Now I can tell the student who complained to me why he/she did not understand me.

Ayame: I always try to give the impression to my students that I am doing my job. I even make them feel that they are obliged to study because I am working so hard for them. I even explain to them, for example, what I prepared for them during the holidays. If I received any complaints from my students, I would insist that I am doing my job thoroughly.

Furthermore, several teachers added that the longer they continued to teach, the better able they were to develop good relationships with their students. In some cases, having good relationships with students helped teachers to overcome their language

problems to the best of their ability. Ayame and Saki gave examples which were commonly observed among other teachers.

Ayame: Even if I speak English with some mistakes, my students are able to understand me. This means that they don't correct my English any more, which is a bit of a problem for me. I believe that they understand me fully and that we can communicate with each other very well.

Saki: I found that especially my senior students can understand me very well. For example, they often know what I want them to do in class if it is part of the routine of practising Japanese. This is because the relationship between me and my students is well established, as I have taught them for several years.

Most of the teachers in the present research indicated that they had been working on classroom management in various ways as part of the on-going job requirements to contribute to maintaining the quality of school environment for both students and themselves. This section explored some of the ways that Japanese native speaker teachers found it effective to work on classroom management.

Literature on effective teaching and class management suggests that planning is necessary for teachers to organise and arrange their learning objectives. Such planning covers the class content, including the activities and resources to be chosen (McGee and Taylor, 1994; 2001; 2008). It is also important to keep up to date with planning, marking and administrative tasks (Lang, 1999; 2008). Effective teaching requires teachers to develop a learner-centred classroom, understand the individual differences of learners, and set up a positive learning environment through establishing clearly defined, collaborative classroom rules (Vaughan and Weeds, 1994). My participant Japanese native speaker teachers recognised the importance of these aspects for creating an effective teaching environment. They set up clear objectives according to the level of students; found out the goals of individual students at senior levels; and facilitated students' participation in class through delivering student-centred lessons. Studies on classroom management also suggest that a learner-centred teaching style and good classroom management skills create effective classroom practice (Cangelosi, 2000; Opdenakker and Damme, 2006). My findings showed that my participant teachers contributed to creating effective learning opportunities for students through identifying the importance of adopting a

communicative approach in teaching and having good classroom management skills to work as an effective teacher.

In the section “Classroom Management in New Zealand Schools” (Chapter Seven), my participant teachers demonstrated that they used various strategies to improve their classroom management. My findings revealed that the teachers provided instructions in classroom rules and requirements as part of the curriculum, and adopted a variety of techniques to manage their classes. These findings were consistent with some of the techniques used for effective classroom management described in the classroom-management research conducted during the last fifty years (Hardin, 2008). In addition to these fundamental strategies for classroom management, my participant teachers adopted extra communication strategies to improve their classroom management. They developed appropriate relationships with individual students through knowing about each student and communicating well with them. They worked on managing classes according to the individual needs by treating their students differently through understanding individuals’ needs and abilities. They also performed consistently not only to manage classes in an appropriate manner but also to prepare well lest they receive complaints from students. These were necessitated because they were non-native English speaker teachers with cultural backgrounds different from that of the students.

According to the theory developed by Wragg (1985; 2004), effective strategies for classroom management include establishing good personal relationships with students, making effective preparation for each lesson, and having specific pedagogic skills such as skilful questioning and explaining, and making appropriate responses. Other researchers also put emphasis on the importance of developing positive student–teacher relationships, which contributes to effectiveness in classroom management (Charles, 2008; Henley, 2006). Charles (2008) especially emphasises the importance of the roles of human relationships and communications in managing effective classroom. Henley (2006) suggests that it is important for teachers to establish trust, know their students, understand developmental needs, avoid stereotypes, and deal with cultural diversity. My participant Japanese native speaker teachers recognised the importance of establishing good relationships with students in addition to adopting various instructional skills for classroom management to work effectively as a teacher.

In these respects, my findings supported Wragg's theory and the theoretical views of Charles and Henley.

Most of the strategies suggested by Wragg require good communication skills. My findings revealed that my participant teachers worked on various ways to acquire communication skills, knowing that having good communication skills is vital to improve classroom management. They initially had language problems (see the section "Language Barrier," Chapter Six); however, they gradually learned how to manage classes through actual teaching. They indicated that English language ability was necessary to work as a teacher and that other communication skills (for example, establishing trust, knowing about students, dealing with cultural diversity) can add to their language ability to work more effectively in the area of classroom management. In other words, acquiring adequate communication skills including English language enabled Japanese native speaker teachers to work effectively in New Zealand schools. In the next section, teachers' roles are further explored to depict what it means to them to teach in New Zealand schools.

4. Being a Japanese Native Speaker Teacher in New Zealand

This section further explores how Japanese native speaker teachers perceive their roles as a teacher through the use of metaphors. It also discusses what it means to be a teacher for Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand schools.

a) Metaphors to Describe the Teacher's Roles

As described in the literature review, the use of metaphors in research can help participants describe meanings to the researcher (Bullough and Gitlin, 1995; Bullough and Stokes, 1994; Connelly and Clandinin, 1988; Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber, 2001). One of the questions in the questionnaire was "If you were to choose a metaphor that described your role as a teacher, what would the metaphor be and how would it characterise your teaching?" The purpose of asking this question was to find out what it meant to them to teach Japanese and to be teachers in New Zealand.

Based on the categorisation adopted by Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber (2001), I arranged the metaphors that the teachers had provided in the questionnaire and

through interviews into three: behaviourist view, constructivist view, and the situative/socio-historic view. The behaviourist view refers to teachers as transmitters while referring to students as passive recipients. The constructivist view indicates that the teacher works together with students to construct something that helps students learn better. The situative/socio-historic view involves the environment and the people who collaborate to achieve a result that benefits everyone involved. Each type of metaphor has implications. For example, the behaviourist metaphors involve the teacher being an entertainer, an actor, or a farmer, because the behaviourist view indicates that the teacher provides information to students who learn by receiving the information. The constructivist metaphors encourage the teacher to be a facilitator, a parent, or a dog trainer, as the constructivist view focuses on an interactive learning environment in which a learner works as an active agent in the learning process. The situative/socio-historic metaphors were adopted by a few teachers who described themselves as being a social engineer, a scientist, and a bridge between cultures.

Previous research findings showed that experienced teachers used more behaviourist metaphors, while the prospective teachers used constructivist and situative/socio-historic metaphors (Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber, 2001). These results were attributed to the differences between these two groups, such as the courses that each group had taken and the previous teaching experience that each group held. They also suggested that the metaphorical base of thinking would help teachers understand the difference between implicit knowledge (that is, knowledge acquired by taking the courses) and explicit knowledge (that is, knowledge acquired through actual teaching).

Metaphor descriptions obtained from the questionnaire in the present research are categorised into behaviourist, constructivist, and situative/socio-historic metaphors; and are shown in each Table (see Appendix F). The data collected in this research showed that the majority of my participant teachers had used behaviourist metaphors, which was similar to the findings of Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber (2001) that the majority of metaphors formulated by teachers were behaviourist. My findings, however, indicated no consistency with the previous research findings (Martínez et al., 1999) in that there was a clear relationship between metaphor descriptions and the length of teaching experience. Both experienced and beginning teachers in the present study predominantly used behaviourist metaphors. These behaviourist metaphors (see

Appendix F-1: Table 8) included entertainer, comedian, fun-maker, clown, pierrot, improviser, actor, actress, performer, singer, captain of the ship, alpha male among the monkeys, pacemaker, motivator, role model, guide, farmer, and prison officer. The following behaviourist metaphor descriptions illustrated how they adapted to teaching in New Zealand schools and how effectively they are working as a teacher.

Jiro: I think I am an entertainer because I feel I did very well in delivering my lesson when my students laughed a lot in class. ...I am getting my salary by making them laugh really, and I have always been thinking about new ideas that I could use as materials to enable my students to enjoy learning.

Ayame: I am probably like a comedian because I feel very happy especially when my students are absorbed in my jokes and laugh a lot and when more and more students start joining my class.

Anzu: I would describe myself as a clown because I act like a clown so as to draw the attention of my students, who are my audience. I try to show or teach them what I prepared well. I often exaggerate what I show or teach, to encourage them to learn or enjoy, and also try to make a big deal of it. Well, it is very important for me to draw my students' attention first to start my lesson.

Yurie: I would say that I am an actor because I act in front of my students to get their attention. In fact, my students told me that I always act. I found it somewhat unnatural to teach Japanese in the classroom in a foreign country. So I try to naturally create some situations in role plays. Besides, I express my emotions when I read texts, which helps my students guess what is going on in a certain situation in the text.

Momoko: I would describe myself as an actress. When I read some conversations for my students, I put emotion with appropriate tones as if I am reading a scenario. I also use lots of gestures in class. It is just like practising a play on stage, and I try to make it like a real situation. That's why I think my job is similar to acting.

My data revealed that those teachers who described behaviourist metaphors had diverse backgrounds—some teachers were experienced and others were beginner; some were secondary school teachers and others worked at tertiary institutions; and some had taught only at high school/tertiary institutions, while others had experience in teaching at both high school and tertiary institutions. My findings therefore imply that behaviourist metaphors are most representative of how Japanese native speaker teachers perceive themselves to be a teacher in New Zealand. This may be influenced

by the likelihood that behaviourist metaphors would predominate in the Japanese education system (that is, the teacher provides information to students who learn by receiving that information) and therefore be most familiar to Japanese native speaker teachers in New Zealand because they received most of their education in Japan.

While most teachers described behaviourist metaphors, some also described constructivist and situative/socio-historic metaphors. The constructivist metaphors emphasised the importance of interactive learning. These metaphors included facilitator, catalyst, coordinator, parents, kindergarten teacher, adviser, counsellor, informant, nurturer, dog trainer, swimming instructor, helper, assistant, friend, and learner (see Appendix F-2: Table 9). The situative/socio-historic metaphors included social engineer, scientist, and a bridge between cultures (see Appendix F-3: Table 10). Most of those who described constructivist metaphors chose to describe themselves as a facilitator or a catalyst.

Mika: I think I am a facilitator because I am the one who provides various tasks for my students and they work on them. I look for practical learning materials so that in the near future they can make use of what they learned in class. I often listen to my students' ideas and help them to decide their goals. I also help them to go on a proper pathway to reach their goals.

Fujiko: The meaning of being a catalyst is that in chemistry when you want to make a chemical reaction, you need to add some chemical substance. ... So I do not teach them, but I help them. They study by themselves and I am just helping them to cultivate their potential.

My data revealed that those who described constructivist and situative/socio-historic metaphors were the teachers who mainly worked at tertiary institutions; otherwise they worked at a high decile secondary school. These findings imply that those who had less difficulty in classroom management described constructivist and situative/socio-historic metaphors. Because constructivist metaphors especially focus on the interactive learning environments that foster students' construction of understanding of concepts and principles through reasoning activities (Greeno, Collins, and Resnick, 1996), those teachers who described constructivist metaphors could afford to be more engaged in other areas than classroom management; therefore they were more aware of how effectively they could help students studying the subject.

While most constructivist metaphors were described by the teachers who mainly worked at tertiary institutions or high decile secondary schools, an exception was one of the categories in constructivist metaphors—parent, kindergarten teacher, advisor, counsellor, informant, and nurturer—that was described by the teachers who not only work at tertiary institutions but also teach at secondary schools with different levels of decile. This finding indicates that this category of metaphors (for example, parent, kindergarten teacher, adviser) were described regardless of the work conditions that the teachers experienced. In other words, those who chose to use these constructivist metaphors were not necessarily the teachers who work at schools/institutions where they had less difficulty in classroom management. For instance, one of the questionnaire respondents described a constructivist metaphor as being a parent. He/she was a teacher at secondary school and pointed out that classroom management was the area that he/she needed to work on more than other areas in teaching. He/she also found that the teacher needs to discipline students as well as to help them to study the subject through interactive teaching and emphasised the importance of balancing these two aspects in teaching. This implied that this category of constructivist metaphors (for example, parent, kindergarten teacher, adviser) also carries behaviourist views in which the teachers saw themselves as transmitters of information and the learners as passive recipients (for example, discipline).

These findings on metaphor descriptions showed the complexity of teaching and the differences in individual teaching experiences. Describing metaphors also helped explore self-meaning of the teachers who experienced teaching in a foreign context. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) suggest that the metaphor emerges from the teacher's prior experiences and directs their practices into the future. My Japanese native speaker teachers described their metaphors for being a teacher in New Zealand through reflecting on their experiences (for example, Japanese education, teaching experience and life experience in New Zealand), and by constructing metaphors, the individual identified his/her belief. My findings revealed that the individual teachers had different beliefs, expectations, values, attitudes, and feelings towards teaching in New Zealand, and the use of metaphor helped the teachers construct the meaningful knowledge about their teaching.

Bullough and Gitlin (1995) claim that teachers are required to have knowledge of self and of context, and knowledge about the interaction of self and context (p.50) to understand the complex and contradictory process of role negotiation. Many of my participant teachers described themselves as being an entertainer or an actor/actress. Their metaphor descriptions reflect upon their teaching experiences through which they learned to become a teacher in the New Zealand context. For instance, they became entertainers because they found that to work effectively in New Zealand schools and to maintain their teaching positions they needed an effective strategy, and entertaining was the most suitable strategy for them to adopt to fit into teaching New Zealand students. Those teachers who described themselves as being an actor/actress also tell us that they found this was their way to survive as a teacher in New Zealand. They found out what was required to work as a teacher in New Zealand in terms of pedagogical practices such as teaching methods and learning styles, and they learned that the use of performance activities such as scripted plays and role plays was an effective teaching strategy. As they adopted these strategies, they found it worked well both in the classroom and for themselves. Other metaphors described by my participant teachers also indicate how the teacher is related to the teaching context. For example, ‘captain of the ship’ implies that the teacher is involved in working on classroom management, while ‘facilitator’ or ‘friend’ implies that they have less difficulty in classroom management. This use of metaphors, I found, enabled my participant teachers to express a range of meanings about teaching—from nurture, kindergarten teacher, parents, dog trainer, swimming instructor, helper, alpha male among the monkeys, pacemaker, guide, farmer, to prison officer. These diverse meanings indicate that while some general ‘themes’ can be described, individual differences in background, experience, personality and beliefs create individual responses to and meanings about teaching in New Zealand.

Metaphor descriptions of my participant teachers therefore served as a useful tool to find out what it meant to them to teach and be teachers working in New Zealand schools. The following section further explores the perceptions of Japanese native speaker teachers in terms of what it meant to them to be working as an effective teacher.

b) The Meaning of Teaching

Towards the end of interviews, most of the teachers described what it meant to be an effective teacher: be it progressing in small steps (Fujiko), ensuring students are fulfilled (Anzu), or drawing out students abilities (Ayame).

Fujiko: My job involves quite a lot of work and small steps. I prepare teaching materials and adopt methods or techniques to introduce new aspects of learning, including new vocabulary and expressions. I also need to think about the percentage or allocation of the time spent for speaking, listening, writing and reading in class.

Anzu: I always make sure that I fulfill my students' interests by explaining and that they have understood what I have explained. I guess that teachers also feel tired sometimes and find it difficult to explain well or to pay attention to individual reactions. But the most important thing for me is to make sure that students are fulfilled by learning.

Ayame: I believe that drawing out students' abilities or positive attitudes for learning is much harder than teaching itself. Teachers must develop special techniques and make an appropriate plan for keeping it up. So I believe teaching in general has been always much harder for us than teaching the language itself.

Other teachers showed their devotion to their teaching and liked to contribute to their students' progress and learning.

Kaori: What I always want to do is to enjoy teaching my students, although bits and pieces of trouble may happen sometimes. I want to try my best continuously so that my students are able to learn from me. Well, even if I teach them, there are some students who do not necessarily absorb everything from me. But then I do hope that my students take something from learning Japanese and that they will remember what they learned after some years.

In this way, teachers described what it meant to them to be a teacher in New Zealand and how they have been trying to improve their teaching to become an effective teacher.

c) Themes Relating to Literature/Research

The present research examined how effectively Japanese native speaker teachers engaged themselves in working in New Zealand schools, and indicated that they managed to adapt to New Zealand society as immigrants. My findings supported

previous research findings in teacher development which showed that teachers go through different developmental stages of becoming a teacher. My findings also demonstrated that my participant teachers had experienced acculturation in which they managed to adapt to the new society through contact and participation (Berry and Sam, 1997).

Previous research on teacher development showed that teachers go through different stages during professional development (e.g., Farrell, 2003; Guskey, 1995; Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986). Katz (as cited in Fessler, 1995, p.174), for instance, describes four main developmental stages in teachers' professional development: "survival" (first year), "consolidation" (second year), "renewal" (third to fourth year), and "maturity" (third year to fifth year and beyond). She explains that teachers come to recognise themselves as teachers in the "maturity" stage, although "maturity" may come earlier or later depending on the individual. Lang (1999) adopted Katz's (1972) stage theory and examined the process of beginning teaching in New Zealand, focusing on the progress through "survival" to the "consolidation" phase. The findings revealed that although the teachers had had to survive a range of difficulties, it became easier to teach for most of the New Zealand teachers in the second half of the school year. This was attributed to the support system such as team teaching, mentoring by tutor teachers, and effective planning. In a more recent study, Farrel (2003) adopted a model presented by Maynard and Furlong (1995) in which teachers go through five developmental stages: "early idealism," "survival," "recognising difficulties," "hitting the plateau," and "moving on," and especially found that the teacher moves back and forth between the final three phases.

My research findings reveal that my participant teachers had also gone through different developmental stages as teachers. Firstly, they expected the differences in education between Japan and New Zealand, but found that some of the aspects in teaching turned out to be different from what they had expected (see Chapter Five and Chapter Six). Subsequently, they encountered difficulties such as language barrier and classroom management (see the section "Difficulties Experienced in Teaching in New Zealand," Chapter Six). They also found it necessary to make some adjustments in pedagogical practice while making some changes in their values and attitudes (see Chapter Seven). They gradually adapted themselves to the teaching environment in

which they constantly recognised the differences and made more adjustments according to the norms required by the school and people around. This developmental process especially required my participant teachers to make significant cultural changes. Most of the teachers then started to find themselves working effectively (moving on) as teachers through adopting new teaching methods and strategies used in the classroom. Since my study focused on immigrant teachers working in New Zealand, it revealed extra findings to Lang's (1999) study. Lang examined the developmental process of beginning teachers in New Zealand and her study did not account for the experiences of immigrant teachers. My study therefore revealed a more complex process in teacher development due to the additional process of acculturation.

My findings demonstrate that my participant Japanese native speaker teachers went through similar stages as the model presented by Maynard and Furlong (1995). On the other hand, my findings further revealed that my participant teachers had experienced acculturation during the process of teacher development. In this respect, my participant teachers experienced an extra stage between the two stages called "recognising difficulties," and "hitting the plateau." The extra stage may be called "adjusting and adapting," which was an additional challenge for them. During this stage, teachers recognised the different aspects in education between Japan and New Zealand, and became preoccupied with making major cultural changes for adaptation.

In a recent study, Liu and Fisher (2006) identified significant factors which contribute to the change and professional growth of teachers. These factors include school environment and atmosphere; course content and structure; relationship with mentor and other staff; and support from family and friends. My research findings show that my participant teachers especially recognised helpful strategies to grow themselves (see the section "Recognition of Helpful Strategies," Chapter Seven), and put emphasis on the relationships with the people around, including colleagues, students and other teachers in the network in order to fit the New Zealand school system. This recognition during their developmental process helped my participant teachers to learn more about New Zealand education as immigrant teachers, which enabled them to successfully adapt to the teaching environment to work effectively in New Zealand schools.

My participant Japanese native speaker teachers were engaged in teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools; therefore, they naturally maintained their own culture while they were involved in the larger society, including community and school. In other words, choosing to teach Japanese as an immigrant from Japan resulted in adopting an 'integration' strategy (Berry and Sam, 1997) during their acculturation process. My participant teachers initially experienced difficulties as beginning teachers; however, they managed to integrate into the environment in New Zealand schools in order to work as effective teachers, through, for example, acquiring adequate communication skills. My research therefore supports the major findings in previous research that 'integration' displays the least social difficulty (e.g., Ward and Kennedy, 1994).

Studies on acculturation further indicate that ways of forming acculturation strategies differ according to the individual, and are categorised into three domains. The first category involves "behavioural shifts" (Berry, 1992) and "cultural learning (Bochner, 1986; Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001), in which immigrants experience changes in values, attitudes, abilities and motives, and learn to acquire social knowledge and skills that are culturally relevant to survive in a new country. My findings demonstrate that my participant teachers had experienced these adaptation processes through making continuous adjustment and improvement, in which they effectively worked on fitting into New Zealand society as a teacher.

The second category in acculturation strategies involves "culture shock" (Oberg, 1960) and "acculturative stress" (Berry et al., 1987) in which immigrants may show lowered mental health status, feelings of marginality and alienation, and identity confusion (Ibid., 1987). The third category involves development of serious psychological disturbances such as clinical depression and anxiety as a result of high acculturative stress. Some of my participant teachers appeared to go through culture shock and acculturative stress because of the difficulties that they had experienced in teaching; for instance, they had confrontations with some students due to differences in expectations and culture (see the section "Understanding Cultural Differences to Manage Classes," Chapter Seven). Further research is necessary to explore whether Japanese native speaker teachers experienced the third category in acculturation strategies, such as developing serious psychological disturbances.

5. Summary

This chapter explored the beliefs of Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand schools, focusing on the teacher's roles. My findings revealed that motivating and encouraging students was the most important role for most of the teachers in the present research, and that introducing new teaching methods provided valuable learning opportunities that benefit both teachers and students. Japanese native speaker teachers believed that it is necessary to set up clear goals for students according to individual needs and abilities, and facilitated students' participation in class activities to direct them to continue learning. They also emphasised the importance of managing classes through communication and suggested that developing appropriate relationships between teachers and students especially contributed to maintaining the quality of classroom management. Metaphor descriptions provided by teachers showed how my participant teachers perceived themselves as being Japanese native speaker teachers in New Zealand and provided insights into how immigrant teachers work effectively in New Zealand schools. Lastly, the main themes in relation to teacher development and acculturation were discussed in connection with the relevant previous research findings.

CHAPTER NINE:

WORKING WELL AS A JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHER

Well, I feel very satisfied when the class went smoothly without any problems because of the preparation that I had done for them [students]. I sometimes try to expand the content of the lesson and therefore spend some time adjusting the content. When my students respond positively to me in the lesson and enjoyed learning what I have prepared, I find it very rewarding (Kyoko).

1. Factors that Contribute to Working Well as a Japanese Language Teacher

As the above excerpt suggests, teachers appreciated students doing well as a result of their preparation, presentation and engagement. While teachers talked about what they believed to be important to work as a teacher (see Chapter Eight), they further revealed what they had faced in reality and how well they had managed to deal with challenges and problems. This section includes the main factors that helped Japanese native speaker teachers to work well as a language teacher in New Zealand schools.

a) Encouraging Students to Learn Japanese

Japanese native speaker teachers found it helpful to motivate and encourage students in order to work effectively as a teacher (see the section “Motivating and Encouraging Students,” Chapter Eight). They further described tactics adopted and some of their techniques to encourage students to learn Japanese, establish their own teaching styles, and promote Japanese language education.

(i) Understanding the Difficulty of Learning Japanese

The first tactic mentioned was the recognition that what they were asking students to do was not easy.

Jiro: I still believe that Japanese language is hard to learn especially for junior students because I often find that more than half of the students become unable to follow the class during the latter half of the academic year. I also found that especially in language classes, the top ones tend to be good at other subjects as well. However, it is still hard for them to learn a foreign language.

Masako considered that students found it difficult to continue to study Japanese because there was so much to learn.

Masako: Compared to other languages, there is too much to learn in the Japanese curriculum. Although students want to become able to talk, get to know the people and have some conversations with native speakers, they find it difficult to sit for an exam because it includes, for example, a reading comprehension test in Hiragana characters and Kanji [Chinese characters]. They may find a gap between what they want to do and what they need to do for the subject requirements.

Furthermore, language learning is incremental.

Kyoko: Especially in studying languages, they need to remember what they learned before they start learning new things, which is different from in [some] other subjects. They cannot learn a new unit without understanding the units that they did before. They need to accumulate what they learned in order to understand fully.

Teru made an assumption that some of the requirements in learning Japanese may be too much for beginners.

Teru: We Japanese often become particular about the strokes or the order of how to write Japanese characters. That kind of thing is not really relevant to students in New Zealand. If we ask especially younger students to do the tedious work that is required in learning a language, they are most likely to lose interest. I therefore believe that we teachers should focus on what really matters to them.

(ii) Strategies Used to Encourage Students to Learn Japanese

Having this recognition that students found it difficult to learn Japanese enabled teachers to use various strategies to encourage them to learn Japanese.

(a) One of the strategies used was to introduce Japanese as being a subject that is easy to learn. They described how they had directed their students.

Jiro: I always try to give an impression to my students that Japanese is an easy subject. I do not think that they would feel like studying if they were told it was difficult to learn the subject.

Hiroko: I have been trying my best to give my students a good impression such that Japanese is interesting. I try to make them start thinking that they want to

learn it more. If they got the impression that Japanese was very hard, I don't think they would try or be able to continue their work. So I believe that I have a big responsibility in that regard.

Ayame: I think it is difficult to teach Japanese language and it is also very difficult for students to learn Japanese language. So what I have to do is to make my students think learning Japanese is easy peasy. In a way I have to brainwash them so that they start to believe that Japanese is easy to learn and that learning the language is enjoyable. Once they start learning, they follow me.

(b) Ayame and Anzu regarded the junior years as most important, so they used considerable compliments and positive reinforcement to encourage students in these years.

Ayame: At the stage when my students are in Year 9, I need to encourage them to study by repeatedly saying to them, "You can do it! You can do it! You can do it!" I often tell them, "You made it because you tried so hard," or "Good on you! You learned this much already." I also say, "Oh, your pronunciation is excellent."

Anzu: I cannot start teaching them by just saying, "Let's learn." I must encourage them by saying, "Let's try our best to practise this today," "Well done! Marvellous," or "You all managed to do very well so far." I praise them all the time. I find that I need to be motivated as well.

Anzu described the reinforcement she used effectively with her junior students to make them more motivated.

Anzu: Especially junior students like to receive stamps and flower marks. In Japan, instead of ticking, teachers give a circle when the answer is correct. I explained about this to my students and they know that the flower mark, which is a circle drawn with some petals around it, is a better mark than a circle to get from a teacher in Japan. I also use some stamps that I purchased in Japan. Introducing Japanese cultural aspects also works well. When I remind them of those things, they are encouraged to attain them.

According to Ayame, praising works for students at all levels.

Ayame: I found that students would work harder if they were praised in some way. They also study at home such as doing homework. When I found that they did well, I would praise them very much, saying, "You did SO well." ... Especially for Year 11 and Year 12, even when the contents become more

difficult to learn, they will continue learning as I continue to encourage and praise them.

(c) A third strategy mentioned by teachers that worked well to encourage student learning was to provide students with practical activities. They found that students worked better when they knew what they needed to do and what they could achieve as an outcome. This was effective for students learning both the cultural aspects of Japanese, and vocabulary and expression.

Mika: I often give my students some work so that they can see the outcome on the spot such as calligraphy, cooking and some other cultural activities. In class I try to provide something that they can put into practice afterwards.

Anzu: I pick up some materials which show the real Japan that I know. I choose those topics that are not normally in the textbook but that make students interested. For instance, a lot of Japanese people have arranged marriages. So I bring up the topic of arranged marriage and show some pictures of venues for meeting places. My students enjoy learning the language as well as finding out about the culture.

Yurie: ... When I teach a sentence structure, for example, I show them that it can be changed in many ways. I want to teach them practical expressions. I want to give them practical learning situations.

Momoko: Well, I teach basics first and after that I do application practices for my students. ... Another thing is that I explain to them about TPO.³⁰ Some expressions may not be suitable to be used under certain circumstances. They need to use them appropriately depending on the situation.

Ayame mentioned how she tried to make the topic relate to the students' life stage (for example, boyfriends and girlfriends) to encourage learning.

Ayame: To teach the passive form of the verb, I would make a sentence, for example, "You were dumped by your boyfriend." I also tell them a short story to explain about the situation. I say, "When you were walking along X Street, you saw your boyfriend walking with your friend called Jenny. Well, you happened to see them unexpectedly and became quite shocked." They understand the situation and remember the sentence structure and expressions very well.

³⁰ TPO stands for "Time, Place and Occasion" in Japanese pseudo-Anglicism (which refers to English used only by speakers of Japanese, not by English native speakers).

Jiro described how he provided a practical exercise for students.

Jiro: ...I do lots of practical activities continuously so that my students cannot have even a short break to think about something else. I entertain my students in a way by providing various fun activities.

When I was invited to observe Jiro's lessons, I observed what he described as an activity to entertain his students. This lesson was delivered at an intermediate school. I noted that he held the attention of his students constantly, made them absorbed in an activity that he had provided, and did not let students attend to anything but listening to him or practising Japanese following his instructions. One of the examples that he impressed me with was the way he taught Japanese numbers by telling a story. He created his story of a man who went to see a film and found the door of the movie theatre locked. The story started with the man becoming itchy (*ichi*)³¹ at the entrance of the theatre and the story continued. The contents of the story included the usage of homophonic English words to all the Japanese numbers from one to ten. Whenever he introduced each Japanese number to the story, he used his fingers to show the number to his students. After telling his story, he asked the students to stand up and follow his movements to learn each Japanese number. He also followed by teaching Chinese characters to write those numbers using the body.

(d) The other strategy used to encourage students to learn Japanese was the use of direct method.³² Noriko firstly explained about the method that she had used before.

Noriko: In direct method, only Japanese language is used in teaching, and therefore they really cannot communicate in detail. So they have to depend on teaching materials such as pictures, gestures and facial expressions.

She continued to explain how to teach using the direct method.

³¹ In Japanese, numbers start with *ichi* as in one, and then *ni* (two), *san* (three), *shi/yon* (four), *go* (five), *roku* (six), *nana/shichi* (seven), *hachi* (eight), *kyuu/ku* (nine), and *juu*. (ten).

³² Direct method, also known as "natural method," is defined as "a method for teaching language that avoids the use of the native tongue, and that emphasises listening/speaking over reading/writing" (Nunan, 1999, p.305). It was developed mainly by Charles Berlitz (1914–2003) who was the founder of the Berlitz Language School. In contrast to the "Grammar Translation Method" which focuses on written language through direct translation, it focuses on spoken language through a communicative approach.

Noriko: *So, for example, if you want to teach a certain sentence structure, you need to show some pictures in which certain structures can be used to describe the situations in those pictures. Show the pictures and ask the students to describe about each picture using some of the learned sentence structures.*

Noriko also described one of the examples of what she had observed in a classroom taught by a direct method.

Noriko: *She was always talking in Japanese and doing various activities in her class. If a student could not understand what she said, she picked up a doll. First of all, students must tell the teacher that they could not understand her Japanese by saying in Japanese, "I can't continue talking in Japanese. Please help me, madam." Then she picks up a doll and says, "All right, then I will help you," and starts talking in English as a doll. So whenever a student is stuck to use Japanese, the student can ask for help from the doll. When the doll finished helping, the teacher leaves the doll somewhere and switches to talking in Japanese again. ... She gives some instructions in Japanese as well by putting "please" in a short sentence.*

Through observation, Noriko found it possible to use direct method even for junior students if the teacher designed the approach in an appropriate way. While this method works for some teachers, many of the teachers found it difficult to use direct method in actual teaching settings in New Zealand because students need explanations in English to understand well.

Saki: *There are perhaps only a few younger students who can understand what I say in Japanese such as "Please listen," or "Open the window." It is a lot faster to tell them what to do in English. So I don't normally use Japanese in class for younger students because the time we have is limited.*

While teachers understood the difficulty in learning Japanese, they worked out various strategies to encourage students to learn the language. The first strategy was to give students the impression that learning Japanese is easy. Other strategies included constantly praising or acknowledging the improvement students make, providing practical activities to teach cultural aspects and the language to give students incentives to learn, and using direct method as often as possible.

(iii) Making Sure Students Understand

During interviews, many of the teachers stressed that students can learn well when they enjoy learning. Some teachers further emphasised that it was important that students understood and learned the content of the lesson and become able to apply it.

Fujiko: It should never happen that students are unable to understand what they are taught. Every time students are taught a new topic, they should understand it well and feel good and happy about learning it. This kind of learning experience gives students the incentive to learn more and study harder.

Teachers therefore noted that it is important for them to direct students to understand and learn what they are taught in class. As a result, students would find themselves enjoying learning. Several teachers explained what they did to make sure that students understood every time they delivered a lesson.

Momoko: What I need to do for my students is to make sure that they understood the content of each unit in the textbook. I teach them using an appropriate method so that they can understand fully. I then confirm with my students whether they understood every time they learned new things.

Ayame: At the end of each lesson, I clarify what they learned for the day and ask each student whether they have understood. I don't let them go unless they said that they understood what they had learnt. I tell them that there must be no questions left unanswered. I say to them, "Because you won't be able to ask any questions at home. Your parents don't know Japanese, right?"

For some teachers, however, it is difficult to teach their students to learn well. Shin explained the difficulty he often encountered among his students in class.

Shin: However, some students are just not able to learn Japanese words and sounds. Even though I repeatedly pronounced a word, they just could not remember it. I found that there are still many students who cannot say the Japanese alphabet in order. They try, but then what they pronounce often sounds like the English alphabet.

Such situations need to be managed. Shin continued to explain how he had managed to teach them.

Shin: *I have been trying very hard to solve this problem. Language studies often require memorisation and my students often find it difficult to memorise the Japanese alphabet just by remaining seated. I found it effective to introduce some methods that allow students to move their body, using their hands or arms when they do memorisation.*

Shin therefore suggested that it is essential for teachers to find out what students can do to learn well. Fujiko further explained how she reinforced students' learning.

Fujiko: *So, as a teacher, I think it is important to give them some opportunities to celebrate their success in class where everyone can participate and enjoy learning by understanding and being able to speak in class. For example, they can feel they have achieved when they successfully presented a role play in class. ... Every time when they achieve something new, we celebrate it before trying out the next thing. It is important to learn new things little by little and accumulate them, and at the same time enjoy the process of learning with everyone in class rather than giving them a difficult topic in a large amount at one time.*

In order to encourage students to learn Japanese, teachers used various strategies to help students understand and learn what they are taught in class. They emphasised the importance of using appropriate teaching methods and learning reinforcement to help foster students' achievement.

b) Establishing Own Teaching Styles

As teachers continued working as Japanese language teachers, they recognised the teaching methods and styles that most suited them. This is similar to views of Hofstede (1997) that some teaching styles work better with students than others. Some teachers made use of their strengths and covered their weaknesses with the strategies that they had learnt.

Momoko: *It depends on the teacher what kind of methods he/she uses to teach effectively. I do "situation practices," that is, we think about the situation first and then use gestures or facial expressions to learn the related linguistic expressions. Some do the same thing as me, while others may not like to. Even if I was asked to draw pictures to teach, I would not be able to do so as I am poor at drawing. So depending on the teacher, he/she can approach the content of lessons using different methods from which students can learn. I found that everyone is different and uses various methods accordingly, which I believe is good.*

Several teachers described how they used their strengths to reinforce students' learning in class. They also remarked that they considered the students' point of view to create their own way of teaching.

Ayame: So I have been doing my own way in my teaching. I deliver my class as I would like it to be delivered if I were a student. I deliver my class in a way that makes me feel comfortable. I arrange my lesson thinking of myself as a student and what kind of class I would like to attend. ... I respect my own character.

Ayame also found that acting a character role was a useful part of her own teaching strategy.

Ayame: Well, in fact, I have been using my own [funny] character to deliver my classes. They enjoy learning Japanese very much. They come to my class saying that they love Japanese. I don't think they find it boring in the classroom even though they may not be good at learning Japanese.

Yurie, Momoko and Teru sometimes introduced knowledge of disciplines other than Japanese language to interest students.

Yurie: I often find that students don't have any knowledge of geography. When I teach them Katakana characters, we use the names of countries. They know the USA or France, but when it comes to small countries, they cannot recognise them. Therefore, I teach them where the countries are located using a world map. I have a list of capitals of each country and often ask them to match the name of the country with the name of capital.

Momoko: When I find my students very keen on learning and able to absorb very quickly what I teach, I even teach them the historical backgrounds of the unit content that I have newly introduced.

Teru: As long as I teach Japanese covering the content of the curriculum in a way, I can introduce any topics. I enjoy teaching because I teach them Japanese through music, science, and so on. For example, one day we sing a song together, and on the next day we do some experiments.

Most of the teachers illustrated that they worked on how to motivate students to learn Japanese effectively. Teachers needed to know themselves and figure out their own personal teaching techniques that suited them to work well as a language teacher.

c) Promoting Japanese Language Education

When teachers talked about the difficulty in learning Japanese, they brought up another issue, which related to their job security. They remarked that the degree of difficulty in studying Japanese may affect the number of students enrolled in Japanese as a subject. Although some teachers pointed out that other factors such as the Japanese economy and the popularity of other subjects tend to influence the number of enrolled students taking Japanese, others mentioned that they had experienced having the number of classes in their institutions reduced due to the decrease in the number of students taking the subject. Therefore, Japanese teachers are often required to get involved in working on maintaining the number of students taking the subject for the purpose of securing their position through promoting Japanese language education.

Since Japanese is most likely to be an optional subject in New Zealand schools, many of the teachers found it important to promote Japanese language education. They worked on how to contribute to the increase in the number of students taking Japanese as a subject. One way was through work in the classroom and the other way was to get students involved in activities outside the classroom. The activities held outside the classroom included taking students to Japan for a school trip, holding cultural events, helping students participate in a speech contest, and working as a coordinator for exchange programmes.

Shin: We hold an event called “quiz time” at school to target new entrants, in which our students show them some demonstration such as Kendo. We also have a mufti day on which we wear international costumes including Japanese kimono. ... We do some fund-raising for going on a trip to Japan from school. ... I sometimes take my students to watch a Japanese movie. ... I am involved in various kinds of activities to promote Japanese language education.

Saki: I am also working as a coordinator for international students including Japanese students. This year I looked after about twenty Japanese students. What I do is, for example, to look for host families for them. Having Japanese students visit contributes to promoting Japanese studies at my school.

Because Japanese teachers are involved in areas other than teaching in this way, they are often required to fulfill more than the role of teacher working at school. Some teachers mentioned that they add to their teaching role by being tour guides, event

managers or organisers, and sales people. These extra positions meant they needed to negotiate their roles and make sense of the meaning of working well as a teacher (see also the section “Metaphors to Describe the Teacher’s Roles,” Chapter Eight for discussion on role negotiation).

Japanese native speaker teachers in the present research described three main aspects in working well as a language teacher. These included encouraging students to learn Japanese through adopting various strategies, establishing their own teaching styles to play to their own strengths in teaching, and promoting Japanese language education by holding various cultural events.

In addition to describing how they encouraged students to learn Japanese, teachers discussed other ways to help students learn Japanese more effectively. Many of the teachers noted that their own experiences with languages helped their teaching effectiveness.

d) Using Own Experiences of Learning Languages

All of the teachers interviewed studied English and speak it as a second language. Some of them indicated that they liked studying languages when they were students.

Kaori: Since I was a child, I have enjoyed learning English. ... When I first came to New Zealand, I learned Maori language. Next, I started studying French in a course for Form 6 so as not to forget what I had learnt in Japan. Subsequently, I took Chinese in a correspondence course for Form 6. Then I studied Spanish and Italian at tertiary level. ... I like learning languages because I can talk to others in that language, which I find very enjoyable.

Fujiko: I like studying languages. ... There are some people who can learn languages very well. I am one of them. I am not very good at all at other things. I was also surrounded by an environment where I could learn languages quite well.

In addition to being fond of learning languages, they indicated that they also like teaching languages.

Miyoko: *I always wanted to teach Japanese language somewhere overseas. I went to various kinds of business schools in Japan to learn the methods of how to teach Japanese as a second language. In fact, I repeated taking the same course at least twice at different schools, not because I failed but because I wanted to learn better. So I ended up going to business schools for about three years in total.*

These teachers who indicated that they liked learning and teaching languages also expressed that they believed this helped them become an effective teacher of Japanese language. Other teachers considered their experience in learning a second/foreign language gave them some confidence that they could become a competent language teacher.

Masako: *Because we learned English as a second language, we know how to study foreign languages. That is why I can teach students how to study languages effectively, even though they may never have learnt other languages before.*

Fujiko: *...so I try to pass on what I have learnt to my students. I have learnt various foreign languages before so that through my learning experience I can teach them how to study languages effectively. I want to teach them not only vocabulary and grammatical points but also the way they should learn a language, which is just like the relation between hardware and software. I heard of this idea somewhere once.*

Reflecting on their own experiences in learning languages and their passion towards language studies, teachers found themselves working well as language teachers. They emphasised the use of their own learning experiences in teaching which enabled them to help students learn effectively.

e) Recognising the Advantages of Students Having Experience in Learning a Second Language

Other factors that contributed to effective teaching were the students. Teachers noted that it was useful when students had experienced learning a second/foreign language before.

Masako: *Some Kiwi students who have studied foreign languages such as French and Spanish know how to learn a language including how to memorise new vocabulary.*

As for the students from overseas, it is most likely that they have learnt English as a second/foreign language, which teachers found advantageous for those students.

Kaori: I suppose that the students from Asian countries have learnt English as a second language. They must study English to come to New Zealand. So, in general, they know how to learn a foreign language. For example, Korean and Chinese students know how to approach learning a language. I believe that it is a real advantage for them.

Conversely, some of the teachers observed the difficulty for those students who had never experienced learning other languages.

Masako: ...But those who have not studied any foreign languages before do not normally know how to study languages. ... I wonder whether some students cannot follow the class just because they do not know how to study a language.

Aiko: Students who have not learnt a second language do not normally think about what the subject and the object are in a sentence in their own language. So when I used the word 'object' to explain the grammatical points, those students could not understand what I meant. So at the beginning of the academic year, I make sure that I explain some of the key grammatical terms in class. I am now used to explaining what 'object' means as I have been explaining it for many years and no longer find it shocking for me to find those who do not understand what it means.

f) Teaching Students How to Study

Many of the teachers remarked that what helped them work well as teachers was teaching their students how to study languages especially at the start of the academic year. By doing so at an early stage of their students' learning, they were able to guide them to improve their ways of making progress in studying Japanese.

Saki: Every year I say to my students, "If you think you can study Japanese every day even for a short time, you should be able to keep up with the course. Otherwise, I cannot guarantee that you will become able to speak."

Hiroko: Well, I told them that they had to study every day and that they had to do preparation and do revision of what they had learnt each day. For example, they have to memorise vocabulary at home before coming to the class and then they need to study every day constantly little by little. I tell them that they cannot just stay sitting down and listening to what I say. ... I therefore needed to teach them [students who have never learned a language] how to study.

Because language studies require different ways of studying, I had to give them more guidance for learning how to study languages.

While some teachers gave clear instructions of what students need to do for learning a language, others talked more generally about what is required in learning a language.

Yurie: At the start of the academic year, I tell my students what they need for learning Japanese. One is creativity because, being away from Japan, we have to imagine different situations for practising conversations. Another thing is curiosity, as it is important to be passionate about knowing new things. The other thing is industriousness, which means that they have to study hard and tirelessly.

Other teachers pointed out the process of learning a language which sometimes involves no reasoning.

Anzu: Junior students often ask me “Why A is B?” and want to know the reason every time I teach something new. So I show them some of the ways to learn. However, as they proceed to become senior students, they normally stop asking why, because they become able to understand that they sometimes need to learn without reasoning.

Most of the teachers expressed that they liked not only studying languages but also teaching languages. They found that some students have advantages in learning Japanese, while other students showed disadvantages because they had no experience in learning a second/foreign language. Many of the teachers stressed that it was helpful to teach students how to study languages, especially to those who had never learnt other languages before. Through teaching how to study languages, teachers found that they helped students find a way to learn a language effectively and make good progress.

g) Being Flexible

During interviews, I asked teachers what in their opinion is most required in teaching in New Zealand. Many of the teachers told me that flexibility was what they found most necessary. While teachers in New Zealand had more freedom to organise their teaching, they were required to make proper adjustments in many areas (see Chapter Seven). In such an environment, most of the teachers found that they needed to be flexible all the time at work, not only in teaching but also in the management area.

They especially emphasised that flexibility is the competence acquired through having experiences in which they had learnt how to deal with various situations occurring at school. Teachers therefore found themselves working well as a teacher when they became able to work with flexibility. This section describes how Japanese native speaker teachers adopted ways of being flexible, and explores how teachers found themselves working well in New Zealand schools. It mainly focuses on flexibility in rearranging class content according to the changes occurring in the classroom and flexibility in adjusting to management at school.

(i) Flexibility in Deciding Class Content

Many of the teachers interviewed described that they had gradually adapted to the environment as they continued teaching in New Zealand schools. For instance, they realised the need for changes according to what they encountered in the classroom. One example regarded the changes of schedule or plan. They used to make lesson plans, but soon realised that what they had planned did not necessarily work well and needed some rearrangement. McGee and Taylor (1994; 2001; 2008) noted that beginner teachers need to write the planning details of each lesson, which help them develop professional teaching skills through reflecting upon the effectiveness of each lesson. It is suggested that teachers become able to make plans using a variety of planning formats as they gain experience. Many of my participant teachers learned to make a lesson plan and gradually developed the professional skills to rearrange their lessons by adjusting their planning.

Most of the teachers firstly remarked that they had prepared detailed lesson plans when they began teaching.

Masako: When I was a student teacher at the College of Education, I taught following my lesson plan.

While some teachers valued lesson plans to give them structure, they also found that plans might be too restrictive.

Mariko: I quite like planning a lesson. But then if I make a plan, I usually try to cover all the items, and end up having some difficulties.

Masako: *I also prepare for extra lessons or practices in my lesson plan so that I would not have to waste time. But then somehow I become overwhelmed and feel I must teach them all. Also, when I tried to cover all the prepared items, I found that some students could not follow me.*

Therefore, most of the teachers found it necessary to rearrange their lesson plans. For some teachers the basis of rearrangement was the students' abilities.

Momoko: *I found that teachers not only need to choose an appropriate teaching style but they also need to be able to change it according to the needs and abilities of students. What I do is to teach less if I find my students are not following me well, but I teach more if I find them doing well.*

For others it was spur-of-the-moment decisions. These decisions were mostly influenced by their evaluation of students such as the needs of the students and the degree of students' progress.

Masako: *... But now I don't think I teach according to the lesson plan every time because some students already learned and knew it, while others have not learnt it yet: this means that I have to do the revision for the class and therefore I must change my lesson plan in some ways. Depending on the situation, I change the content of my class and explain in my own way.*

Shin: *Some students find the class too easy, while others cannot even count in Japanese. There is a big gap. So sometimes I cannot help making my class a little bit easier and doing it slowly.*

Mariko: *I normally prepare handouts in advance and give them one after another. Even if I estimate that it will take half an hour, they may take only twenty minutes. In that case I give them another handout to do some exercise or activity.*

There were other cases which required teachers to be flexible in rearranging class content according to the changes in environmental conditions. The conditions included emergencies, the changes of weather, and the time of the day.

Yurie: *One time I needed to call an ambulance because one of my students had a heart attack in the classroom. He had always been well and never told me that he was ill. So I was a bit shocked. ... As a teacher, you need to know how to rearrange class content according to what happens in the classroom.*

Kaori: ... Another time was when it suddenly started hailing and my students could not concentrate, looking outside. Even though I was teaching the topic of sports, I changed the topic to teach how to say, "It started hailing," or something about the weather. I change the topic if students become distracted by environmental changes.

Similarly, Jiro explained that the conditions of the day and the time of day influence students' behaviour in the classroom.

Jiro: Depending on the conditions of the day, students also change. In the morning when the temperature is reasonably low, students can concentrate on studying. When it becomes fine and warm like today, however, they don't study at all. That's why I need to adjust or change my class content considering the time of day and the conditions for my students.

These examples demonstrate how teachers had learned to be flexible in delivering the content of a class.

(ii) Flexibility in Adjusting to School Systems

In addition, a few teachers indicated that working as a teacher in New Zealand schools required flexibility also in the area of the school system.

Mika: After having changed my place of teaching three times, I found that I also changed. I became more flexible. I can now handle most of the things that happen in class or at school.

Kyoko: Another thing is that you need to handle any changes that occur at school smoothly because in New Zealand, anything can be changed any time during each week. You must not be surprised, but be able to adapt yourself to those changes and handle them well.

In this research, teachers described their need to be flexible in the classroom or at school. While they might prepare for a class using a lesson plan, they expected to change their class content depending on the students' needs and abilities or the changes of conditions in the classroom. Teachers were also required to adapt to different school systems. These findings imply that teachers learned through experience and adapted themselves to the teaching environment as they continued to teach and that they gradually became competent teachers who work well. The following section explores what teachers learned through their teaching experiences

and discusses how they reflected upon themselves through teaching experiences to work well as a teacher.

h) Learning through Teaching Experience

My findings revealed that many of the Japanese native speaker teachers in the present research had obtained a New Zealand teaching qualification to become a qualified teacher in New Zealand (see the section “Demographic Information,” Chapter Four). They indicated that it was important to obtain a teaching qualification in New Zealand not only to learn the New Zealand education system but also to apply for a teaching position in New Zealand (see the section “Teaching Qualifications,” Chapter Five). Furthermore, they acknowledged that they gained various practical learning opportunities through professional practices in the teacher training course that they took to obtain a teaching qualification. On the other hand, many of the teachers still emphasised more importantly that they gained practical teaching skills through actual teaching experiences, and illustrated some of their examples to show how important it was to have experience to become a teacher.

(i) Learning through Teaching Experience in Japan

Most of the teachers had teaching experience mainly in Japan, including teaching at primary school, secondary school, cram school, language school, and business school; and teaching as a private tutor. While some teachers found that the teaching methods and teaching styles that they had used in Japan (especially at secondary school and at cram school) were not applicable to teaching in New Zealand, others valued what they had experienced in teaching and some of the teaching methods that they had learnt and used in Japan.

Especially those teachers who had experience in teaching at primary school found it useful to apply some of the teaching techniques to teaching Japanese in New Zealand.

Ayame: So my teaching experiences at primary school in Japan have been quite useful. For instance, primary school pupils can concentrate only for a short time; therefore teachers always need to change the activities in class, otherwise pupils won't be able to learn. I found that the way of teaching at primary school in Japan can be directly applied to teaching Japanese at secondary school in New Zealand. If I am doing the same thing all the time, students over here get bored very quickly.

Likewise, those teachers who had experience in teaching at secondary school in Japan remarked that their teaching experience in Japan was different from what they experienced in teaching in New Zealand. Several teachers who had worked at language schools in Japan, however, said that they had some advantages because they could apply some of the teaching techniques (for example, direct method) they had used in Japan to teaching Japanese language in New Zealand.

Aiko valued teaching languages by the direct method that she had learnt in Japan.

Aiko: I observed some classes at a language school in Japan. I was very interested in finding out how to use the direct method to teach complete beginners. So I went to observe some classes. I found that the teachers were trying not to use unknown words in class. I found it very important to use the words that the students had learnt before. ... After that observation, I started using this method in Japan, and over here I have been trying to use it as often as possible.

Norio and Lisa also noted that what they had experienced in teaching in Japan was useful in teaching in New Zealand.

Noriko: When I found it hard to use some of the teaching materials to teach Japanese in New Zealand, I often used some materials that I had used in Japan. Because I specialised in teaching Japanese to non-native speakers in Japan, I had already learnt some of the main steps that I had to go through to teach Japanese to them. In that sense, my teaching experience in Japan worked well in New Zealand.

Lisa: I learned in Japan some teaching techniques to teach Japanese [as a second language]. What I found useful was one of the methods called “giving and taking,” to practise some expressions, using real objects or pictures. To do this activity, students are asked to sit in a circle, which makes it easier for the teacher to teach in the centre of the circle. It is also easier for students to approach the teacher even when they are divided into small groups.

In contrast, other teachers asserted that the teaching methods that they had used in Japan did not turn out to be very useful for teaching in New Zealand; however, they emphasised that teaching experiences in Japan had given them some confidence to work as a teacher in New Zealand.

Masako: *In Japan, it is very important for the individual student to learn the knowledge through rote learning by himself/herself. Students in Japan memorise huge amount of information to pass the exams, which is the main purpose for them to study. I also taught them how to pass the exams by teaching them useful techniques for memorisation. Although this kind of technique is probably not applicable for students studying in New Zealand, I believe my teaching experience in Japan and other countries is still valuable and useful for me to continue my career.*

(ii) Learning through Teaching Experience in New Zealand

Regardless of having a teaching qualification obtained from Japan or teaching experiences in Japan, most of the teachers found it necessary to obtain a teaching qualification in New Zealand. They learned different approaches in teaching that fit New Zealand schools through teacher training courses and found it helpful to learn new teaching methods commonly used in the New Zealand classroom. Teachers nevertheless emphasised that actual teaching experiences in New Zealand gave them more learning opportunities and that it is therefore important to have experiences through actual teaching.

Most of the teachers remarked that they did not feel confident about teaching when they started working as a teacher in New Zealand but that experience gave them confidence to start working well in New Zealand schools. They indicated that they became able to work well through their teaching experiences in New Zealand.

Fujiko: *... I did not have much experience at that time, so it was quite hard for me to work at school. ... I neither had a teaching qualification at that time nor had any capability to be a real teacher. I learned to be a teacher through my experience.*

Ayame: *We find our way through experience. I think that there is a big difference between, say, first year teachers and those who have been teaching for ten years. Those Year 1 teachers having less experience would not know much, while Year 10 teachers would know more just because they are more experienced.*

Experiences of teachers influence many aspects of teaching. Experienced teachers are perhaps more able to recognise and choose effective ways in teaching, while less experienced teachers are not always able to do so. Teachers commented on the strengths of experienced teachers.

Fujiko: *I have been teaching for a long time. If you continue teaching, you will naturally learn what is important in teaching and how you can solve problems.*

Noriko: *I found that the experienced teachers already knew which points their students tended to make mistakes about or to stumble over. ... It was very interesting for me to observe those experienced teachers telling me in advance what might happen in the classroom.*

In this way, many of the teachers valued experience to work well as a teacher. Mariko described what she would do to improve her teaching, considering what she had learnt from her experience.

Mariko: *Well, next time, I will be more flexible. For example, I will not stick to my own standard for teaching. If I find that the level of student ability is low, I will lower the level. If I find that they need more games or role plays in order to learn, I will choose the methods accordingly. I may not cover everything that I planned beforehand. That depends on the situation observed in class. I will not be sticking to my own standard, but lower it if I find it necessary to do so.*

Other teachers remarked what they had learnt through teaching experiences. They improved their skills as they continued to teach and worked out effective ways in order to contribute to students making progress.

Kyoko: *I figure out the best way for each class, particularly what the most suitable activities would be. When I think of the class conditions and try to prepare well for my students, things are most likely to go well.*

Fujiko: *I learned various kinds of teaching methods, but the most effective way after all was to motivate students. I learned that through my teaching experience. I observed my students in order to find out many ways to motivate them well.*

The remarks above therefore suggest that the more experienced they became, the more they learned to be flexible in order to work well as a teacher in the classroom. A few teachers clearly showed their confidence in working well as a teacher in New Zealand.

Jiro: *As I mentioned just now, I think that New Zealand education is an ad lib education; therefore, I believe that the ability of the individual teacher largely reflects on what students learn. ...I constantly work out how they won't get bored so easily in class.*

In this way, many of the teachers used their own experiences to make appropriate decisions in their teaching. My findings imply that teachers attributed their competence as a teacher to their experience in teaching and that their experience gave them confidence to work well as a teacher in New Zealand.

The literature shows that teachers gain experience after going through certain periods dominated by problems with management and curriculum development (Katz, 1972; Unruh and Turner, 1970) and that encountering various environmental factors during the process of career development facilitates an increase in teachers' knowledge and skills (Fessler, 1995; Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). Unruh and Turner (1970) state that teachers become established by working on improvement in their teaching. In his humanistic approach, Fessler (1995) argued that mature teachers continue to grow and change and that the environmental conditions such as personal (for example, family, individual dispositions, avocational interests, life stages) and organisational factors (for example, school organisations, public trust, societal expectations) influence teacher development. Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) proposed a contextual approach, which involves the context of teachers' working environmental conditions (for example, time allocations for classes and preparations, support system) and the context of teaching itself (for example, quality of teaching resources, professional development courses). They argued that these contextual factors determine the process and success of teacher development and influence the ways in which they continue to improve their teaching. These various influences that have profound effects on teacher development are clearly explained in the systems theory framework that provides the overarching structure for macro-level analysis of theory (Patton and McMahon, 1999).

My participant Japanese native speaker teachers emphasised that gaining experience through actual teaching gave them more learning opportunities and helped them to teach well at New Zealand schools. They went through different career development stages in which they recognised that they learned to become a teacher through their experience. A systems approach such as Fessler's humanistic approach implies that many of my participant teachers were also influenced by personal and organisational factors to become experienced. For instance, they might have experienced teaching in Japan and had personal and career reasons to come to New Zealand. They were also

influenced by organisational factors such that they needed to learn the New Zealand education system and make adjustments in order to fit into teaching in New Zealand. Furthermore, my participant teachers learned through encountering various working environmental conditions and teaching contexts to experience and discover the teaching styles that suit them in order to work effectively in New Zealand.

2. The Reality of Teaching Japanese in New Zealand

This section describes the reality in teaching by exploring how teachers continued to adapt themselves to working well in New Zealand schools and how they regarded the teaching job in New Zealand in relation to the work conditions involved in teaching.

a) Cultural Adaptation

During interviews, most of the teachers remarked that they needed to adapt to teaching in New Zealand. One way was to make adjustments in teaching through adopting the strategies commonly used in New Zealand schools (see Chapter Seven). They learned the way that schools run and adapted themselves to the culture of the school that they worked for. Teachers also found that cultural adaptation in relation to the language and cultural values were the other important issues for them to work on (see Chapter Six and Chapter Seven). In such an environment, teachers continued working in New Zealand schools and gradually learned ways of adapting to teaching well in New Zealand.

Many of the teachers indicated that they found ups and downs in their teaching life. The remarks that teachers made give us some insights into what it means to be teaching, for Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand.

Mariko: Well, I had ups and downs. If I could teach smoothly, I felt really happy for the rest of my day. I also made a lesson plan and did cover everything that I organised. I was pleased. That was only for a certain class though. I don't think that I did so well for the bad one until the last day of my teaching.

Kyoko: Well, every day I have been extremely busy and I just try to catch up with what I must do at school. Every day I think of what I should be doing tomorrow in class to make it enjoyable. I have been doing this all the time every day so far, really.

While some teachers described what they experienced every day as a teacher, others emphasised what they needed to do to adapt themselves to working well as a teacher in New Zealand.

Anzu: You must have some guts to teach in New Zealand schools because the teacher every day faces students who tell you anything. At my school, when students misbehave, they are issued an incident report. When we teachers find some misbehaviour, we need to ask for the student's name to issue the report. I have been told by students so many times, "I am not gonna give you even a name." But if I want to stay here as a teacher, I need to be mentally strong.

Kaori: I think you need to enjoy teaching. Even though there are some problems, you take it as natural to have them. It is more important for teachers to enjoy working. Also, you must be patient and be fond of your students.

Teru: The most important thing for me is to establish proper relationships with my students. If we understand each other, we can make it easier to solve most of the problems that occur at school. Therefore, it is also important for teachers to have good communication skill.

Teachers further talked about the reality of teaching in relation to the NCEA system.

Saki: In New Zealand, there is a system called NCEA and students must sit for the final exams. As a teacher, you must be able to get your students to pass the exams. If you could not get them to pass, I suppose you would not be a competent teacher any longer. You must teach them well so that they can pass the exams at the end.

Fujiko: One of the ways to know whether we are doing the right things is to see the results of our students, whether they have good outcomes or good marks in NCEA. ... If the students in class as a whole receive bad results in NCEA, for example, the teacher in charge is the one who gets blamed for it. We teachers quickly receive any feedback all the time from everybody.

Teachers added that teachers were also influenced by NCEA in the way that they teach in class. They therefore needed to be aware of the final NCEA exams in working out how to teach students.

Mariko: When students reach Year 11, they must sit for NCEA exams. I really wanted them to pass the exam with good marks, so I started teaching them a lot. I suppose they really enjoyed learning when they were Year 10, having lots of fun activities in class. When they reached Year 11, the learning contents became

harder and most of them found the class too hard and started losing interest in learning. I therefore needed to review my teaching to suit this system.

Chiharu remarked that NCEA affected planning for her classes, which caused her some dilemma to deal with.

Chiharu: I have been busy preparing for my classes every day. Especially I am always aware of what to cover in class for each unit of work. I look at the materials given to me by the former teacher, who comes to see me once a week to give me some advice. When I missed out teaching some content, he/she tells me that I don't have to worry about it so much and suggests that I teach that in the next term. But then I think about NCEA for the students and believe that I should teach them as soon as possible. I end up thinking about this kind of thing and the day is just gone again.

The issues brought up by teachers interviewed in relation to cultural adaptation therefore included not only personal adaptation such as overcoming the language barrier and adjusting their cultural values (discussed in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight) but also adapting themselves to school cultures and what is required of them as a teacher in the education system in New Zealand.

What Noriko remarked at the end of her interview may suggest what is most required of teachers to continue to work as a teacher in a foreign context, especially in the case of immigrant teachers.

Noriko: ... Well I think that we need to forget about being a native speaker. There must be a lot of things that we do not know just because we are native speakers. ... I think it is important for teachers to be able to learn together with students.

b) Important Work Conditions for Teaching in New Zealand

One of the questions in the questionnaire was “What have been the best two things for you about teaching in New Zealand?” In response, teachers raised eight themes regarding work conditions. These work conditions included ‘Secure job,’ ‘Fair treatment,’ ‘Getting support,’ ‘Flexibility in teaching,’ ‘Student feedback,’ ‘Teaching conditions,’ ‘Finding out the student results,’ and ‘Extra benefits’ (see Appendix G: Table 11). These findings indicated that Japanese native speaker teachers in the present research found that these eight aspects in work conditions gave them a sense of satisfaction in working as a teacher in New Zealand.

Teachers found that the teaching job was secure enough to support them to live in New Zealand. Having worked at school, they found that they received fair treatment and support from the people involved at their workplace. In the classroom, they found freedom to teach with flexibility except where they needed to teach to NCEA. Other aspects in relation to work conditions that they found different from in Japan included teaching styles which emphasised a communicative approach and receiving direct feedback from students.

Based on these findings obtained through the questionnaire, I explored in in-depth interviews what might have made teachers decide to continue or discontinue teaching in New Zealand schools. While some teachers explained more about some of the aspects listed in Table 11 (see Appendix G), many of the teachers concentrated on elaborating two main issues, 'Student feedback' including 'Finding out the student results,' and 'Team teaching.'

(i) Receiving Positive Feedback from Students

One of the issues that many of the teachers chose to talk about in relation to work conditions was receiving feedback from students. Almost all teachers in the present research experienced receiving both positive and negative feedback from New Zealand students (see the section "Understanding Cultural Differences to Manage Classes," Chapter Seven), which they found different from what they had experienced (as a teacher or as a student) in Japan. During interviews, teachers remarked that they liked not only to see students making progress through their teaching but also to see themselves working well. One of the ways that enabled teachers to confirm whether they were working well was to receive positive feedback from their students. The feedback included comments or remarks that students made to them and the results of exams.

Some of the teachers indicated that they liked to receive the feedback/comments from students to confirm that they taught their students well.

Lisa: Especially when I finish teaching them for the academic year, some students come and see me, saying, "I want to continue taking Japanese next year as well because I really enjoyed your teaching," I feel very happy and satisfied. Because it means I am doing well.

Yurie: Sometimes, they comment on me for the day such that “I studied well today because I understood it very well.” I feel very happy to hear that. If I try my best to teach them, they also give me positive feedback. I feel very good about teaching them. ... Well, in fact, when I don’t get any feedback from my students at all, I feel really empty.

Other teachers indicated that they became motivated to teach when they received positive feedback from their students and made good communication with their students.

Ayame: ...they commented on the worksheets that I had made. They told me that they found them very useful to work on. Then they requested extra worksheets, so I spent some time making them during the holidays. I showed my students what I did for them even during the holidays, hoping that they would feel obliged to study harder.

Saki: ... Well, I sometimes find that there is a moment when my students understood well and explain what they had learnt better than I do. ... I like to see such progress that they make. ... I really want to teach them better especially when they are very keen on learning new things.

On the other hand, several teachers remarked that they felt satisfied to see the good final results of their students. Having such students with good results enabled them to have another way to confirm that they were working well as a teacher.

Saki: I would say that a good teacher can get students to pass the NCEA exams. To help students receive good results is very important for teachers to be working well.

Fujiko: But, probably the most important thing for me is the results of NCEA. Last year, one of my students passed with one hundred per cent in Japanese. She was a Kiwi, neither a Japanese student nor a Chinese student. A Kiwi student passed Level 1 with one hundred per cent. The second one received ninety-four per cent. I really felt satisfied with the fact that my students managed to get such good results in the exams.

In this way, teachers indicated that they liked finding out that students received good results, as well as receiving positive feedback from students.

(ii) Team Teaching or Independent Teaching?

The chapter on adjustment in teaching (Chapter Seven) described the involvement of teachers in team teaching that is often observed in New Zealand schools and discussed the advantages and disadvantages of team teaching (see the section “Team Teaching,” Chapter Seven). The advantages included learning useful strategies from other teachers, reducing workload by getting help from other teachers, and students being able to learn better from more than one teacher. The disadvantages included lack of flexibility in deciding the class content and timetable; and being unable to see the individual contribution in teaching. Interviews further revealed that these disadvantages contributed to discontinuation of some teachers to work in team teaching.

Some of the teachers remarked that in team teaching they often found it difficult to see their individual contribution in the final results, especially when more than two teachers were involved in teaching. Lisa and Masako represented other teachers to explain what they had found in team teaching.

Lisa: In the case of team teaching, I need to respect other teachers' opinions and do as they wish sometimes. I also need to be aware that I must finish teaching the content allocated to me so that it is difficult for me to be flexible or to make some adjustments myself. Well, I could still see our students making progress, but it is hard to see exactly how much I contributed to it.

Masako: In team teaching, I could not clearly see my own contribution to the amount of progress that students made. Besides, I found that any teacher could replace my position because the class content is fixed and scheduled. To be honest, I could not see my value as a teacher very much in team teaching. Also, it was a bit hard for me to get fully motivated to be involved in organising classes because I sometimes needed to compromise even if I had something that I really wanted to do in class.

The above remarks suggest that team teaching influenced motivation and attitudes of Japanese native speaker teachers to work in a team. My findings also revealed that those who had remarked on the disadvantages of team teaching had experiences in independent teaching. For instance, when they worked as a private tutor or as a tutor at cram schools, they were in charge of teaching one subject by themselves. When they worked at a primary, secondary, or business school, they also taught students without involving any other teachers. Therefore, when students made good progress,

they could clearly see the contributions that they had made towards the students' results and also confirmed their own teaching abilities. They remarked that they felt satisfied to see the efforts they had made for students which were clearly reflected in the outcomes. Kaori described her experience in teaching as a private tutor in Japan.

Kaori: I taught some junior high school students as a private tutor in Japan. Those students were totally on the zero level and barely knew what was going on in each subject. Therefore, I had to teach them from scratch, but then they started understanding a bit and gradually improved. They finally managed to get into a senior high school. I heard later that they had also managed to finish schooling and could get into a university as well.

In contrast to team teaching, many teachers found it more rewarding and satisfying to teach independently.

Masako: When I was teaching by myself without involving any other teachers, I could clearly see how much I worked for my students. What I had taught was clearly reflected in the amount of progress that my students made.

Fujiko: Because I have been teaching by myself, I can see the progress of my students very clearly. My students also can find themselves making progress by following me and feel happy about it.

Saki: Even though I know that students are the ones who have to study to improve, I really feel satisfied to see my students making progress through my own teaching.

Having experienced both team teaching and independent teaching, teachers chose the workplace suitable for them. Some still chose to teach in a team, while others chose to teach independently after having experienced being involved in team teaching. These findings suggest that team teaching can be attributed as one of the causes of discontinuation of teaching for some teachers who changed either the teaching position or the job itself to continue (or discontinue) working in New Zealand.

This section described the reality in teaching that Japanese native speaker teachers found through actual teaching. In order to continue teaching, teachers needed to adapt themselves to teaching in the New Zealand education system. They noted that receiving positive student feedback and good student results helped them continue

teaching so did finding a school where they could use their preference for (or against) team teaching.

3. Comparisons with Relevant Literature

This chapter highlighted factors that enabled Japanese native speaker teachers to develop into teachers that are working well in New Zealand. Krumboltz (1996) suggests that the individual's learning experience influences his/her educational and occupational choices over the years. He proposes that people acquire task approach skills to enable them to judge the most appropriate choice for themselves by constructing a belief based on a number of prior learning experiences (that is, self-observation generalizations) and observing the world of work (see the section "Social Learning Theory in Career Decision-Making," Chapter Two). My findings demonstrated that my participant Japanese native speaker teachers learned to become teachers in New Zealand through their experiences. They went through different stages of professional development and acquired the skills to choose teaching styles that best suited them. Through their experiences, they became able to create originality in teaching and to work on maintaining student interest as well as their own job security. They continued working in New Zealand and gained experience which helped them establish themselves as teachers.

They also went through different stages in cultural adaptation. Previous research shows that career interests and work values differ according to each cultural group (Lau and Wong, 1992; Leong, 1991; Tang, 2001) and that people from Asian countries are more likely to be satisfied with a job with prestige even though they may find the environment incongruent (e.g., Tracy, Watanabe, and Schneider, 1997). As my participant teachers were immigrant teachers from Japan, their experiences were influenced by the Japanese culture in which they had previously lived. Therefore, when they made a career choice to become a teacher, it is clear that they had a cultural value of teaching to be a respectable occupation. While New Zealand classrooms were different from those the participants had experienced in Japan (that is, they were not congruent), the teachers were still able to experience satisfaction with their jobs. They achieved this by maintaining their value of teaching, acknowledging their part in successful exam results for their students and accepting

positive feedback from students and colleagues. These factors helped the teachers remain in their jobs as the feedback provided motivation for them to experience job satisfaction and this in turn affected the learning outcomes of the students (Opdenakker and Damme, 2006) which encouraged positive feedback from the students.

Many of the teachers suggest that establishing their own teaching style is the key to becoming an effective teacher in New Zealand. Hardin (2008) claims that the congruence between the personality of the teacher and the teacher's action creates a successful classroom and that it is therefore important for teachers to find a management technique that fits the teacher's personality. Some of my participant teachers used their character to enhance effectiveness in teaching, while others used other disciplines such as music and science. Hardin (2008) also suggests that the teacher needs to clearly define his/her expectations and all components of the plan, including rules, consequences, and procedures. My participant teachers introduced their own teaching style and management style so as to best help students learn. They also took advantage of the beginning of a new academic year to set up rules and procedures as part of the curriculum; demonstratively organised the classroom through planning and setting up clear learning objectives; minimised transition time and kept students busy by continuously providing class activities; and used communication skills to create an effective learning environment. This conduct was consistent with Cangelosi's (2000) strategies for effective teaching.

Charles (2008) addressed the roles of human relationships and communications in managing an effective classroom. He suggests that it is important to enhance personal relations through giving students personal attention, and discussing students' opinions. My participant teachers demonstrated that they worked well on classroom management through establishing good relationships with their students.

Furthermore, my findings revealed that my participant teachers displayed their uniqueness as teachers working in a foreign context in New Zealand schools. Their cultural maintenance as immigrant Japanese teachers influenced their teaching as well as their attitudes and behaviour in the classroom. While they used their knowledge as Japanese native speakers to teach Japanese effectively, they demonstrated that their

cultural values enabled them to continue teaching in the environment where they often encountered differences and difficulties in teaching and management. Many of them experienced difficulties in teaching, especially in the area of classroom management. However, most of them continued teaching in New Zealand schools, which may be explained by Japanese fundamental values such as valuing duty, obligation and responsibility, and extolling tolerance for difficulties and endurance of hardships (Marsella, 1993).

An important theme that emerged from their descriptions of adaptations they made in order to work well as teachers in New Zealand was their preservation of the Japanese value of tolerance. Thus, they displayed endurance, for example, when faced with language problems that they had encountered through interaction with their students, and when offering teaching outside normal hours because of the lack of funding supplied by a school. Furthermore, other teachers displayed tolerance towards differences when they encountered the mismatch in expectations and cultural values about the positioning of teachers and when they received negative comments directly from their students. This view of cultural preservation also supports Hansen's (1997) assertion that successful career development must encompass issues of identity, including cultural diversity issues.

The literature suggests that team teaching creates a supportive teaching environment and helps develop teaching skills through recognising alternative methods and techniques of teaching and evaluating lessons from other members in a team (Lang, 2008; Richards and Farrell, 2005). Many of my participant teachers experienced team teaching in New Zealand and found it helpful to be involved in this teaching style. They showed some respect towards other teachers in their team and valued involvement of both native and non-native speakers in teaching. Japan is one of the countries that forms a collectivist society in which conformity and harmony are valued in social interactions (Hofstede, 1997). It may be said that these cultural values influenced how they perceived and described the advantages in team teaching.

While some participant teachers indicated that team teaching had advantages, others pointed out disadvantages in team teaching. Many attributed this to their independent teaching experience in Japan. Others found teaching independently was more

rewarding because they could clearly see their contribution to the outcome. The findings suggest that teachers' preference for independent teaching may also be attributed to changes in their values from a Japanese harmonious relationship emphasis to a Western independence-oriented emphasis (Yeh and Inoue, 2002). My participants are teachers working in New Zealand society, in which they changed some of their values to suit the teaching environment. It was therefore natural for them to develop values of independence-orientation over their years of teaching. Some teachers thus preferred teaching independently, while others had already found it more rewarding to teach independently through their experience of being a private tutor in Japan. They chose the teaching style that best suited them to work effectively in New Zealand.

Furthermore, my data showed that those who taught at tertiary level were most likely to be involved in team teaching and that the teachers who worked at intermediate or secondary school were more likely to teach independently, being in sole charge of each class. Although teachers might prefer independent teaching, they might choose to teach in a team if they perceived working at tertiary level as being more prestigious. On the other hand, it can be said that those who taught at intermediate or secondary school chose more freedom in teaching rather than the prestige of the job.

4. Summary

This chapter focused on the reality that Japanese native speaker teachers had faced in teaching at New Zealand schools, and illustrated how they managed to work well as teachers in New Zealand. Some of the strategies which helped teachers to survive included encouraging students to learn Japanese, establishing own teaching styles, promoting Japanese language education, and teaching how to study foreign languages. This chapter also examined what was required of teachers to work well in New Zealand schools. Many of the teachers emphasised the importance of learning through experience, being flexible and developing effective teaching strategies through actual teaching experience. My findings revealed how teachers adapted to teaching in New Zealand schools over the years, and how they found the work conditions in reality. Lastly, this study examined how my participant teachers found themselves working well in New Zealand in relation to the previous literature on Japanese cultural values.

CHAPTER TEN:

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In this thesis, I examined the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand. Through analysis of interviews and written responses, several aspects particular to Japanese native speaker teachers were elucidated, which had never been systematically studied previously. These main findings include: (1) the teachers' motivations for choosing teaching as a job in New Zealand were influenced by specific reasons such as the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools and using teaching to gain permanent residency; (2) the teachers' career decisions were largely influenced by contextual factors such as valuing the New Zealand system, having their own cultural values respected, and the economic situations in both countries; (3) the job search success of the teachers was largely influenced by the demand for teaching Japanese and the economic situation in New Zealand; (4) the teachers experienced complexity in teacher development as immigrants—they often went simultaneously through the processes of teacher development and acculturation—where they constantly recognised differences and made adjustments with the recognition of helpful strategies; (5) the teachers valued having good communication skills and adopted extra communication strategies to add to their language ability to work effectively in New Zealand schools; (6) through metaphor descriptions, many of the teachers found that entertaining was the most suitable strategy for them to adopt to fit them for teaching New Zealand students; and (7) specific values the teachers held enabled them to continue teaching in the environment where they often encountered difficulties in teaching and management and also enabled them to develop useful teaching strategies particular to them.

This chapter firstly summarises the findings of the present research. It aims to highlight the main findings particular to Japanese native speaker teachers working in the New Zealand context. It also presents other findings that corroborate theories and previous research. Secondly, it discusses implications and recommendations for immigrant teachers working in New Zealand. This is followed by a discussion of the implications for researchers to extend their research in the area of immigrants' teaching experiences and their career development. Lastly, it concludes with some

suggestions that arise from the main findings particular to the Japanese native speaker teachers who participated in the present research.

1. Summary of Research Findings

There has been no previous empirical research conducted on the experiences of Japanese native speakers teaching Japanese in the New Zealand context. Such experiences were therefore the foci of the present research. The intention was to gain an understanding of such experiences and make a contribution to the relevant literature on career development, teacher development, and acculturation. Findings emerged mainly from the analysis of interviews with twenty-five Japanese native speaker teachers and were supplemented by responses to a survey questionnaire. Major themes included ways that the teachers' backgrounds influenced their career development decision-making process (Chapter Four); differences that teachers expected and found in teaching in New Zealand (Chapter Five; Chapter Six); difficulties that teachers encountered in New Zealand schools (Chapter Six); adjustments that teachers made to fit into the New Zealand education system (Chapter Seven); adaptation strategies that they adopted to work effectively in the New Zealand cultural environment (Chapter Eight); and the teachers' perceptions of working well as Japanese language teachers in New Zealand (Chapter Nine).

a) Teachers' Backgrounds and Decision-Making Process in Career Development

The number of teachers who responded to the questionnaire was fifty-two, of whom twenty-five teachers participated in subsequent interviews. These interview participants were all career changers (this includes changing the subject that they teach) and my findings revealed that both push and pull factors greatly influenced their decision-making process in career choice. Job search methods and process were explored to identify what helped teachers to find teaching positions in a foreign context.

(i) Educational Backgrounds and Previous Work Experiences

My data showed 86.5 per cent of the questionnaire respondents had graduated from university in Japan, while nearly half held a teaching qualification from Japan (48.1 per cent) and/or from New Zealand (46.2 per cent). They also showed that 76.9 per

cent of the questionnaire respondents had teaching experience either in Japan or in non-Japanese speaking countries, or in both areas. Nearly one-third of the teachers (30.8 per cent) had had teaching experience in New Zealand for twelve years or more (see the section “Academic Qualifications and Teaching Experience,” Chapter Four).

Most of the teachers interviewed had other teaching experience, mainly in Japan. Some had taught at primary or junior/senior high schools, while others had been employed privately at business school, language school or Japanese companies. More than half of the teachers interviewed claimed that they had work experience in a variety of fields other than teaching in Japan and/or in New Zealand (see the section “Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes,” Chapter Four).

(ii) Valuing Teaching Qualifications to Teach in New Zealand

Regardless of having a teaching qualification obtained from Japan, 46.2 per cent of the questionnaire respondents endeavoured to obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification. Many of the teachers valued having a New Zealand teaching qualification for two main reasons: to get a teaching job in New Zealand since teaching is a highly prestigious occupation in Japan (Lewis, 1995), and to learn the New Zealand education system (see the section “Teaching Qualification,” Chapter Five). As a result, going back to a college/university to obtain a New Zealand teaching qualification returned those teachers to an earlier career state (Super, 1990).

(iii) Push and Pull Factors that Influenced Career Decision-Making

During the decision-making process in career choice, my participant teachers were influenced by various pull and push factors (Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003) to choose to come to New Zealand and to teach in New Zealand.

Push factors for coming to New Zealand involved dissatisfaction with previous work conditions (for example, gender inequality, long working hours), and a sense of choice influenced by the economic bubble in Japan. Pull factors for coming to New Zealand included family reasons (for example, marriage, education for children), personal reasons (for example, study, travel, friends, sport) and work-related reasons (for example, working-holiday, teaching) (see the section “Reasons for Coming to New Zealand,” Chapter Four).

Push factors for choosing to teach in New Zealand involved dissatisfaction with previous non-teaching work conditions experienced mainly in New Zealand (for example, insecurity), having difficulty in finding a stable or suitable job other than teaching in New Zealand, and immigration status with no permanent residency (see the section “Work Experiences through Previous Career Changes,” Chapter Four). Pull factors for choosing to teach in New Zealand included workplace conditions (for example, gender equality, steady income), using previous teaching experience, the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools, freedom in teaching subjects, making use of language skills, using teaching to gain permanent residency, and other expectations (for example, family, impressions, learning opportunities) (see the section “Expectations of Teaching in New Zealand,” Chapter Five).

My findings supported several career development theories and also extended previous research on factors that influence career choice. Firstly, consistency of the present research with the trait-factor theories (e.g., Parsons, 1909) was confirmed. My participant teachers learned to understand their own traits and competences through their previous work experiences and determined to choose to teach in New Zealand, which they believed best suited them. The findings also supported self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Many of my participant teachers believed in their competence to be a teacher through their teaching experience in Japan and other countries, their ability to speak English and the skill of teaching foreign languages.

Furthermore, my findings supported the tenet of the systems theory that the different interrelated systems influence individual careers. My participants’ career development was largely influenced by social and environmental/societal system influences. These included family (for example, having a New Zealand partner) and employment market (for example, the demand for teaching Japanese in New Zealand schools). Their career decision was also influenced by individual system influences, such as the beliefs (for example, having high level of language and teaching skills), values (for example, high prestige and compensation for teachers in Japan), and their individual needs (for example, gaining permanent residency). All these system influences obviously pushed them towards making a decision for becoming a teacher in New Zealand.

My findings also suggest that their career decision-making was most likely to have been influenced by their cultural values in which teaching is regarded as a respectable occupation. This finding is consistent with previous research (e.g., Long, Watanabe, and Tracey, 2006) that found that people from Confucian-heritage countries put priority on prestige in career choice. My findings also demonstrated that my participants' decision-making process in career choice was largely influenced by contextual factors such as learning experience, family, peers, the labour market and economic events, which corroborated social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, and Hackett, 1996). Contextual factors that were not mentioned in previous research, but were mentioned as important in decision-making for participants in the present research, included valuing the New Zealand education system, having their own cultural values respected, and the economic situations in both countries.

(iv) Job Search Methods and Process for Finding a Teaching Position in New Zealand

In the present research, informal sources such as word-of-mouth were commonly used, and many of the teachers found a teaching position through their personal contacts with other people. Nevertheless, their job search methods were most likely to have involved multiple approaches, such as sending their CV to many schools, visiting schools to find vacancies, getting involved in volunteer teaching, and talking to other people around (see the section "Applying for a Teaching Position," Chapter Five). My findings therefore support Saks' (2006) hypothesis that the use of more job search methods results in more job opportunities and employment. My findings also supported previous research findings (e.g., Lent et al., 2002) by demonstrating that contextual supports played an important role in finding teaching positions. Other factors, particularly identified in the present research, which influenced their job search process, included unplanned events (Mitchell, Levin, and Krumboltz, 1999) in the two countries, and the availability of targeted jobs in relation to the economic situation in New Zealand.

b) Developmental Process to Learn to Become a Teacher in New Zealand

My research findings verified that Japanese native speaker teachers learned how to become teachers in New Zealand through a developmental process. The process involved: finding differences in the education system between Japan and New Zealand, facing difficulties in teaching in the New Zealand cultural environment, and

making adjustments to fit into teaching in New Zealand schools with the recognition of helpful strategies. These findings indicated that the teachers often went simultaneously through not only the process of teacher development but also the acculturation process.

(i) Differences in the Education System between Japan and New Zealand

The initial discoveries for my participant teachers who started working in New Zealand schools mainly focused on the differences in the education system between Japan and New Zealand. These differences included curriculum resources, pedagogical practices (for example, teaching methods, learning styles), attitudes and values of teachers, attitudes and behaviours of students, and working conditions at school (for example, working hours) (see the section “Initial Discoveries Made When Working in New Zealand Schools,” Chapter Six).

(ii) Difficulties Found in Teaching in New Zealand

The difficulties that my participant teachers experienced were mainly related to the language barrier and classroom management. According to previous research, the language barrier has been one of the main problems for overseas students in the process of learning and cultural adaptation (e.g., Li, Barker, and Marshall, 2002), while classroom management has been the greatest concern for beginning teachers (e.g., Bezzina, 2006). My findings confirmed that the language problems of the teachers, which were especially serious when they started teaching as beginner teachers, exacerbated the difficulties experienced in classroom management.

My findings revealed that my participant teachers not only experienced “reality shock” (e.g., Farrel, 2003) and isolation (Kremer-Hayon and Ben-Peretz, 1986) as beginner teachers, but they also realised the mismatch in expectations and cultural values. These findings indicated that the teachers went through a development process to learn to become a teacher during the acculturation process in which they experienced psychological and behavioural changes as a result of being in contact with other cultures and peoples (Graves, 1967). My participant teachers, being beginner immigrant teachers, therefore appeared to have more problems, and their problems lasted longer than those of local beginner teachers as cited in Lang’s (1999)

study (see the section “Difficulties Experienced in Teaching in New Zealand,” Chapter Six).

(iii) Adjustments Made to Fit into Teaching in New Zealand Schools

The adjustments that the teachers made to the teaching environment included organising curriculum resources to meet the needs of students and themselves, and adjusting or changing their attitudes and values to create a more effective teaching environment. Other adjustments made by the teachers involved adjusting pedagogical practices (for example, teaching methods, teaching styles) and adopting effective strategies to reduce difficulties in classroom management. These adjustments were made according to what they learned from various resources available, such as attending professional development courses and learning from colleagues and other teaching staff (see Chapter Seven). The teachers were able to apply the methods and the strategies learned theoretically in teacher training to the actual teaching settings. These findings supported previous research to the effect that the teacher’s beliefs had a positive effect on student learning (Woolfork, Rosoff, and Hoy, 1990).

(iv) Helpful Strategies Used to Teach in the New Zealand Cultural Environment

In accordance with the adjustments and changes that the teachers made, the Japanese native speaker teachers recognised helpful strategies available to them. My findings showed that the teachers maintained a support system that involved school and colleagues (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992), which helped them adapt to teaching in the New Zealand cultural environment and establish their career as immigrant teachers. These findings are consistent with the findings in the New Zealand studies on the experiences of New Zealand teachers (Cameron, Barker, and Lovett, 2006; Lang, 1999), which found that a support system helped beginner teachers survive in teaching and develop as teachers. Receiving support from the school when they worked on obtaining New Zealand academic qualifications while working as teachers (see the section “Recognition of Helpful Strategies,” Chapter Seven) is one of the examples that demonstrates that supportive environmental conditions in New Zealand schools contributed to successful teacher development of my participant teachers.

c) Working Effectively as a Japanese Language Teacher in New Zealand

In spite of the differences and difficulties that the Japanese native speaker teachers faced in teaching, they managed to integrate into the environment in New Zealand schools in order to work as an effective teacher. In this respect, my participant teachers are successful, having found “congruence” within the workplace (Holland, 1973). The present study demonstrated that choosing to teach Japanese as an immigrant from Japan resulted in adopting an ‘integration’ strategy during their acculturation process. This finding therefore supports the major findings in previous research that ‘integration’ displays the least social difficulty (e.g., Ward and Kennedy, 1994).

Working effectively as a teacher in New Zealand requires competent use of teaching and management strategies (outlined by Cangelosi, 2000; Hardin, 2008; McGee and Taylor, 2001; Vaughan and Weeds, 1994; Wragg, 2004). The teachers in the present research who worked effectively demonstrated the use of many strategies outlined. These strategies included motivating and encouraging students, setting up clear learning objectives, facilitating student’s participation in class (that is, using a communicative approach) and managing classes through communication (see Chapter Eight). In accordance with the use of these effective strategies, the teachers displayed a sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Many of the teachers believed that their competence enabled them to find ways to teach effectively and with some flexibility (see the section “Being Flexible,” Chapter Nine).

Other effective strategies that contributed to working well as a Japanese language teacher included: establishing own teaching styles, promoting Japanese language education, using own experiences of learning languages, recognising the advantages of students having experience in learning a second language, teaching how to study foreign languages, and learning through teaching experience. All these strategies that the teachers adopted in teaching as well as their job satisfaction that they gained from work conditions for teaching in New Zealand (for example, ‘fair treatment,’ ‘flexibility in teaching,’ ‘receiving positive feedback from students’) helped them to work well as a Japanese language teacher and created a successful classroom in the New Zealand context.

The teachers also demonstrated that they survived as teachers in New Zealand through receiving extra support outside of school, especially from the people who understood them and their culture. They first gained support from the local people that they knew well when finding a teaching job. After they started teaching, they joined the Japanese teachers' network to share their experiences and problems—this included the network for Japanese native speaker teachers in New Zealand. They also received support from Japanese language advisors and their own mentors. These strategies helped them solve some of their dilemma.

In addition to strategies described in the literature, the teachers mentioned a number of strategies unique to the present study. These highlighted the adaptations made by the Japanese native speaker teachers in order to fit into teaching in the New Zealand school system. My findings revealed that their normative Japanese cultural values such as obligation and responsibility, tolerance for difficulties, and endurance of hardship (Marsella, 1993) helped my participants continue teaching and adapt to working effectively as teachers in New Zealand schools. When faced with differences in cultural values in the school system and the mismatch in expectations in the classroom, these teachers made adaptations but they maintained their own cultural values. Many teachers said that they coped well with the difficulties through avoiding cultural clutter and respecting their own cultural values (for example, responsibility and endurance). These adaptation strategies obviously helped my participant teachers to survive in New Zealand as immigrant teachers.

2. Implications and Recommendations

In light of the major research findings, the following section discusses implications and recommendations for Japanese native speaker teachers, immigrant language teachers, and prospective teachers who intend to come from overseas to teach in New Zealand. This is followed by a discussion of the implications of the findings for future research.

a) Implications for Immigrant Teachers Working in New Zealand

The present research was conducted among the Japanese native speaker teachers who have been working successfully in New Zealand schools. Their responses to

interviews and questionnaires illustrated how the teachers developed their skills in teaching New Zealand students and how they managed to adapt themselves to the New Zealand cultural environment. Their experiences in teaching in New Zealand therefore provide insights into how immigrant teachers might develop their career paths in different cultural environments and adapt themselves to working effectively with people in a foreign context. An outcome of the present research is therefore some suggestions to help prepare Japanese native speaker teachers who have been working in New Zealand schools, those prospective immigrant teachers who have been enrolled in courses for professional practice, and people in Japan (and probably other Asian countries) who plan to come to teach in New Zealand for a successful experience.

The first suggestion focuses on the concept of recycling in Super's (1990) life stage theory. It is pertinent to make sense of the fact that the Japanese native speaker teachers went through life stage changes in order to live and work in New Zealand. Their life stage changes firstly involved: learning to adapt to New Zealand culture (for example, the New Zealand education system), going back to a college/university to improve their skills and to acquire knowledge where English is the medium of communication/teaching instructions, and getting a teaching qualification to help find a job. These experiences returned most of my participants to an earlier life stage or career state in New Zealand. People who plan to come to teach in New Zealand therefore need to organise themselves so as to cope well with life stage changes until they establish themselves in order to work as teachers in New Zealand.

The second suggestion arises from the finding that my participant teachers' experiences in teaching in a foreign context showed complexity in the process of teacher development. The process involved not only learning to become a teacher but also cultural learning in which they acquired social knowledge and skills that were culturally relevant for surviving in their new society (Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001). The teachers in the present research went through both the teacher development process and the acculturation process in order to become teachers in New Zealand. In these respects, the findings suggest that immigrant teachers need to prepare for going through the complicated developmental process in which they are

required to adapt themselves as teaching professionals but also as immigrants to work and live in a foreign country.

Previous research found that dislocation experienced through having difficulty in cultural adaptation cause various forms of stress (Mills, 1997) and that cultural conflicts result in mental health problems (e.g., Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok, 1987; Abbott, Wong, Williams, Au, and Young, 1999; Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward, 2007). Changing career to work in a foreign country required my participants to go through the process of cultural adaptations. For instance, they experienced discrepancies between what they had expected in teaching and what they found through actual teaching. The positioning of teachers was one of the examples where the teachers had found differences in the perceptions of the public between Japan and New Zealand (see the section “Positioning of Teachers,” Chapter Six). As immigrant Japanese teachers, my participants experienced these discrepancies in cultural values and mismatched expectations. My findings revealed that some of the teachers had also experienced culture shock in the classroom. With reference to previous research, these findings therefore suggest that it is critical for immigrants to understand the different culture and adapt themselves to the cultural environment to become successful teachers in a foreign context. It is also important for immigrants to avoid cultural and social isolation while they maintain their own culture in order to prevent mental health problems.

A further suggestion focuses on the value of teachers adopting many strategies relevant to effective teaching, and their own strategies (for example, respecting their own cultural values) when they encounter difficulties in the New Zealand classroom. Examples illustrated by the teachers in the present research provide some orientations for beginner and prospective immigrant teachers who need to learn practical skills, especially in the area of classroom management. Strategies including establishing one’s own teaching styles, teaching how to study foreign languages, flexibility in teaching, and learning through teaching experience (see Chapter Nine) provide useful references for beginner/prospective immigrant language teachers and help other immigrant language teachers develop their own teaching skills.

b) Implications for Future Research

My research findings suggest that it is important for immigrant teachers to adopt strategies that enable them to teach effectively and to survive as a teacher in a foreign context. Some of the findings extended previous research and provided understanding of the process in teacher development of immigrant teachers. All examples illustrated in the present research were revealed by the Japanese native speaker teachers working at secondary/intermediate schools and tertiary institutions in New Zealand. Therefore, some of the strategies that my participant teachers adopted to reduce their difficulties would be applicable to other teachers from Japan working in the New Zealand context. These findings also would help immigrant teachers especially from Asian countries to learn strategies for working effectively in any New Zealand educational institutions. Further research is required to explore the experiences of immigrant teachers from other countries to find out the strategies they adopt for effective teaching. In comparison to the views of immigrant teachers in the present research, the views of students can also be explored to improve teaching, especially in Japanese language education.

The present research explored the experiences of teachers who had gone through each of the developmental stages in teacher development (e.g., Katz, 1972). At each stage, the teachers adopted various helpful strategies particular to them. My participant Japanese native speaker teachers especially valued maintaining their cultural values when working as teachers. They demonstrated that immigrant teachers need to adopt their own strategies to work effectively in a foreign context. These findings imply that it is important to find more strategies that help other immigrant teachers, specific to their cultures, so that they can survive as teachers in a foreign country. Further, while my participants talked about family influences for coming to New Zealand, they did not discuss these with respect to their reasons for staying. An extended research study could explore this phenomenon.

The present research focused on Japanese native speaker teachers who wish to remain in their teaching jobs. Presumably, there are other teachers who failed to continue teaching in New Zealand for some reason and who resigned from teaching positions. Previous research found that the level of adaptation is significantly related to outcomes of migration. For instance, maladaptive adjustment of migrants resulted in

mental health problems (Maydell-Stevens, Masgoret, and Ward, 2007). It may be relevant to explore the experiences of the teachers who resigned from teaching concerning their level of adaptation. Their experiences may help understand immigrants who have adaptation problems, and contribute to extending previous research in the area of immigrants' mental health problems.

Previous research found that immigrants often face unexpected outcomes such as downgrading of occupational status (Oliver, 2000). Many of my participant teachers also experienced unexpected outcomes as immigrants in New Zealand. They experienced downgrading of their jobs when they first arrived in New Zealand due to their individual circumstances. However, they soon realised that they were involved in a job which was not suitable to them. These experiences became one of the reasons for the participants to choose to teach in New Zealand. Contrary to literature that suggests that New Zealand immigrants experienced discriminatory barriers to employment in New Zealand (Coates and Carr, 2005; Ward and Mastoret, 2007), my findings showed no evidence that participant teachers experienced discrimination when applying for a job. This may be attributed to the fact that my participants were more likely to be dependent on the people that they knew when finding a teaching position, and therefore they had less contact with people within the formal job search channels. Further in-depth interviews would be required to explore the problems and the constraints that immigrant teachers experienced in their job hunting.

My findings further showed that although my participant teachers held similar cultural backgrounds and cultural values, each teacher revealed individual experiences and values in teaching. This is consistent with the systems theory proposition that each individual has unique interactions with the contextual systems (Patton and McMahon, 1999). Through metaphor descriptions, the teachers showed that they were different in terms of their beliefs in teaching, perceptions of teaching, and the present teaching situations and work environments. My findings showed no consistency with the previous research findings (Martínez, Sauleda, and Huber, 2001) such that no clear relationship between metaphor descriptions and the length of teaching experience was found. In the present study, many of the teachers, regardless of their backgrounds in teaching, described behaviourist metaphors. This was attributed to the likelihood that behaviourist metaphors would predominate in the Japanese education system and

therefore be most familiar to Japanese native speaker teachers in New Zealand because they received most of their education in Japan.

The present study demonstrated that the use of metaphor enabled teachers to describe their individual experiences and provided the opportunities to self-reflect on their teaching. Further research is required to explore the experiences of the Japanese native speaker teachers and other immigrant teachers, including the changes in different stages of the teacher development process in relation to environmental factors. Metaphor descriptions could be used to help understand what was involved in each stage of the development process of immigrant teachers and how cultural adaptation influenced their teaching in different stages of teacher development. These findings would become valuable information for immigrant teachers for understanding teaching in a foreign context, recognising individual differences in teaching, and establishing their teaching career in New Zealand.

3. Conclusion

The present research explored the experiences of Japanese native speaker teachers working in New Zealand. Their experiences included differences and difficulties they encountered in teaching, adaptations they made to fit into teaching in the New Zealand context, and the use of strategies that helped them survive as teachers in New Zealand schools. The main findings showed that my participant teachers confronted difficulties and challenges similar to those of all beginning teachers, but in their case, language and cultural attributes exacerbated their challenges and adaptations. Nevertheless, specific values they held enabled them to develop useful teaching strategies peculiar to them and make successful adaptations to the New Zealand teaching environment. This successful outcome was influenced by their additional learning experience of having gone through the complexity in teacher development as immigrants. Their stories of development covered their expectations, their strategies, and their experiences of successful adaptations.

Previous research showed that curriculum making, the teaching process and classroom organisation are largely influenced by teachers' prior experiences and their values (Connelly and Clandinin, 1999; He, 1998; Levin, 2001) and that teacher

development involves not only learning teaching skills (Borko and Putnam, 1995; Jackson, 1992) but also personal development (that is, personal maturity, human life cycle) (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992; Fessler, 1995) and contextual factors (that is environmental work conditions) (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992; Hopkins, Beresford, and West, 1998). The major findings of the present research extended these previous studies through examining the development of Japanese native speaker teachers working in the New Zealand context.

The research participants, Japanese native speaker teachers, demonstrated that their success in career development and in surviving in a new country as a teacher was due, in part, to their conscious decision-making. They had chosen the job in which they could not only make use of the education (for example, language, values) that they had obtained in their own country, but also afford to maintain their own cultural values. Balancing the acquired culture in New Zealand with their own culture in teaching enabled them to continue working and contribute successfully to teaching in New Zealand. This may suggest that in order to make successful adaptation, immigrant teachers need to continue their learning in the destination country, utilise skills previously acquired in their own countries, and participate in the new society.

I hope that the present research contributes to creating the opportunity for educators and relevant communities to understand immigrant teachers who work in a foreign context with different cultural backgrounds and who constantly endeavour to fit into New Zealand society.

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Appendix A:
Information Sheet and Questionnaire

Japanese Teachers' Experience in NZ Questionnaire

You are invited to participate in Phase One of the project for finding out Japanese teachers' experience in New Zealand. This questionnaire is divided into three parts. Part 1 collects some personal information about yourself, Part 2 asks you about your experience in teaching, and Part 3 invites you to participate in Phase Two of the project.

Your participation is entirely voluntary. If you are willing to participate in this survey, please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me (Yasuko Okamura) using the addressed envelope provided. All the information gathered from Part 1 and Part 2 of this questionnaire will be treated CONFIDENTIALLY and remain ANONYMOUS.

You may withdraw your participation, including withdrawal of any information you have provided, until your questionnaire has been added to the others collected. Because it is anonymous, it cannot be retrieved after that.

By completing the questionnaire it will be understood that you have consented to participate in Phase One of this project, and that you consent to publication of the results of this survey with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

If you would be happy to participate in Phase Two, you need to agree to Part 1 and Part 2 not being anonymous. This will require your agreement to have your name attached to this questionnaire. Your name will not, however, appear on any documents. All completed questionnaires we receive will be kept in a locked cabinet and will remain confidential.

This project has been approved by the University of Canterbury's Human Ethics Committee. The project is being supervised by Dr. Judi Miller (School of Education) and Dr. Edwina Palmer (School of Languages and Cultures). If you have any questions/concerns about participation in this project, please contact either my principal supervisor or me. My supervisor's phone number is 364-2546 and email address is judi.miller@canterbury.ac.nz. My email address is okamura_yas@hotmail.com.

Thank you for your time.

Yasuko Okamura, Post-graduate Student
School of Education, University of Canterbury

PART 1: Personal Information

Please **tick** (an) appropriate box(es) or follow the instruction.

1. **Gender**

☐ Female

☐ Male

2. **Highest qualifications from Japan** (You may tick more than one.)

☐ College (短期大学)

☐ Teaching Qualification (教育免許)

☐ University (大学)

☐ Postgraduate University (大学院)

3. **Teaching experience in Japan**

☐ None

☐ 1 year

☐ 2 years

☐ 3 years

☐ 4 years

☐ 5 years or more

4. **Teaching experience in countries other than Japan and NZ**

☐ None

☐ 1 year

☐ 2 years

☐ 3 years

☐ 4 years

☐ 5 years or more

5. **NZ qualification** (You may tick more than one.)

☐ Teaching Qualification

☐ University Degree

☐ Postgraduate Degree

☐ None

6. **Years living in NZ** (Please **circle** an appropriate number.)

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20~

7. Approximately how many hours do you actually teach per week?

(Please **circle** an appropriate number.)

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20~ |

8. Teaching experience in NZ (include paid and unpaid teaching)

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 year | <input type="checkbox"/> 2 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 8 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 9 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 years or more |

9a. How many teaching positions have you had in NZ?

(Please **circle** an appropriate number.)

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6~ |
|---|---|---|---|---|----|

9b. Please tick the types of positions in Q.9a. (You may tick more than one.)

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Full-time teacher | <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time teacher | <input type="checkbox"/> Relieving teacher |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Full-time
Lecturer or tutor | <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time
Lecturer or tutor | <input type="checkbox"/> Others
() |

10. Current teaching position(s)

(If more than one, please **circle** your main position.)

11. For how long have you worked in this current main teaching position?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 year | <input type="checkbox"/> 2 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 8 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 9 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 years or more |

PART 2: Experience in Teaching

Please answer every question in English or Japanese.

1. What were your expectations for teaching in NZ? Please describe what you thought of teaching in NZ before you actually started teaching. Please use page 4 if required.

2a. What surprised you about teaching in NZ?

2b. What adjustments have you made to deal with Q.2a?

3. What have been the best TWO things for you about teaching in NZ?

a)

b)

4. According to literature on teaching, many foreign language teachers have a metaphor to describe themselves (for example, nurturer, actor, mountain climber, advisor, etc.). If you were to choose a metaphor that described your role as a teacher, what would the metaphor be and how would it characterise your teaching?

5. Please add any other comments you would like to make about your teaching experience.

Thank you for your time. Please read the following last section.

PART 3: Participation in interview session

Thank you for spending your time to complete this survey. Now, I would like to ask you whether you would be willing to participate in an interview session. This is to expand the questions in the survey and find out more detail about your teaching experience. It would take no more than 30-45 minutes of your time. I would like to audio-tape all interviews. If you can possibly participate in the interview session, please write down your name and either your phone number or email address. I will contact you shortly.

Name: _____ Phone No: _____

Email Address: _____

Appendix B:

**Letter to the Head of Japanese Studies for Participation
in the Research Project of the Teaching Staff**

Yasuko Okamura
School of Education
University of Canterbury
Private Bag 4800
Christchurch

10 November 2004

[Name of the Head of School/Department]
[Name of School]
[Name of Institution]
[Address of Institution]
[Name of District]

Dear [Name of the Head of School/Department],

I am writing to request your approval for me to conduct a survey on Japanese teachers in your department.

I am a post-graduate student at the School of Education, University of Canterbury, and currently doing research on Japanese teachers' experiences. The aim of my research is to find out how Japanese teachers' previous experiences affect them and their work in both teaching and non-teaching areas within a foreign/multicultural context. It will mainly focus on their views of the issues or problems in the school context.

Enclosed is a copy of the questionnaire that I will be using for the survey.

This research has been approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee and my supervisor, Dr. Judi Miller (judi.miller@canterbury.ac.nz) will gladly answer any queries you may have.

I look forward to a favourable reply from you.

Yours faithfully,

Yasuko Okamura
Ph.D. Student
School of Education
University of Canterbury

Appendix C:
Examples of Extended Questions for the Interview

インタビューにおける質問事項 (Interview Questions)

インタビューの内容は、XX 先生がアンケートでお答えしてくださったことをもう少し詳しく説明していただくことと、先生のお話の内容によって、他の質問もさせていただこうと予定しております。例えば次のような質問を用意しておりますので、どうぞ、よろしくお願い致します。(In interview I would like you to explain in a little more detail about what you answered in the questionnaire. Depending on what you talk about in interview, I will also ask you other questions. Examples of the questions that I may ask you in interview are as follows. Thank you for your cooperation.)

- Q. どういう理由でニュージーランドに来ましたか。
(What made you to come to New Zealand?)
- Q. 日本で仕事をしていましたか。どうしてその仕事をやめたのですか。
(Did you work in Japan? What made you to resign from that work?)
- Q. ニュージーランドで、教えること以外の仕事をしたことがありますか。
(もしそうであれば) その仕事は、どうでしたか。
(Have you ever worked in any field other than teaching in New Zealand? If so, how did you find it?)
- Q. ニュージーランドで、他にも仕事があると思いますが、なぜ日本語を教える仕事を選びましたか。
(There are other jobs available in New Zealand, but what made you to choose teaching Japanese?)
- Q. どのようにして、日本語を教える仕事をさがしましたか。
(How did you look for a Japanese teaching position?)
- Q. ニュージーランドで日本語を教えていて、どうですか。感想をきかせてください。
(How did you find teaching in New Zealand?)
- Q. 自分が気がついた、または、経験した日本とニュージーランドの教育の違いについて話してください。
(What differences in education between Japan and New Zealand have you noticed or experienced?)
- Q. 先生として生徒 (学生) にしてあげたいこと、または、してあげないといけないことって、何だと思いますか。
(What are the things that you believe you should or want to do as a teacher for your students?)

- Q. 生徒（学生）と、どのような関係を保つようにしていますか。
(What sort of relationship do you aim to create between you and your students, and how do you do so?)
- Q. 今の仕事に満足していますか。どのような点において(不)満足していますか。
(Are you satisfied with your present job? What are some of the things that make you feel satisfied/dissatisfied?)
- Q. 教えていて楽しい時ってどんな時ですか。また、落ち込む時ってどんな時ですか。
(What do you enjoy and/or feel depressed about teaching?)
- Q. Team-Teaching をしたことがありますか。それについてどう思いますか。
(Have you ever taught in a team? What do you think of it?)
- Q. ニュージーランドの学校において、先生に求められるものって、何だと思いますか。
(What do you think is required in teaching in New Zealand schools?)
- Q. ニュージーランドで日本語の先生になれる条件のようなものってあると思いますか。あるとしたら、どのようなものでしょうか。
(Do you think there are specific attributes which Japanese teachers in New Zealand ought to have? If there are any, what do you think they are?)
- Q. ニュージーランドで働く場合、資格って大切だと思いますか。どうしてそう思いますか。
(Do you think that it is important to have qualifications in order to work in New Zealand and why?)
- Q. もう一度、新米教師としてやり直すことになりました。さて、どのようなことに気をつけますか。
(If you were to start teaching again as a beginner teacher, what precautions would you take?)

Appendix D:
Written Consent Form

Yasuko Okamura
Post-graduate Student
School of Education
University of Canterbury

March, 2004

CONSENT FORM

Experiences of Japanese Native Speaker Teachers Teaching Japanese in New Zealand

I have read and understood the description of the above-named project. On this basis I agree to participate as a subject in the project, and I consent to publication of the results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved.

I understand also that I may at any time withdraw from the project, including withdrawal of any information I have provided.

Name (please print):

Signature:

Date:

Appendix E:
Ethical Approval

College of Science

Tel: +64 3 364 2312, Fax: +64 3 364 2490, Email: collegeofscience@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC/2004/88

15 October 2004

Yasuko Okamura
Department of Education
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Yasuko

The Human Ethics Committee advises that your research proposal “**Teaching in a Foreign Context: Experiences of Japanese Teachers in New Zealand**” has been considered and approved.

Yours sincerely



Tracey Gaskin
Secretary

Appendix F:
Questionnaire Responses on Metaphor Descriptions

Appendix F-1.

Table 8.

Behaviourist metaphors (Questionnaire responses)*

Entertainer / Comedian / Fun-maker
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am an entertainer as I create an atmosphere in the classroom which keeps the students interested and stimulated. - I am a comedian because I deliver lessons full of enjoyment with laughs that students look forward to.
Clown / Pierrot / Improviser
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am probably a clown as I try to draw the audience's attention and show them how enjoyable learning can be. - I am an improviser because I use my creativity such as gesturing to explain the topic I am given. I am sometimes required to do so very quickly in impromptu.
Actor / Actress / Performer / Singer
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am like an actor who has creativity and energy, as I create situations in a role play. - I am like an actress because I use gestures, facial expressions and body language to teach my students. - I am an actor who transmits messages in an effective way so that the audience can understand it well. - As I am originally a shy and introverted person, I feel I am acting the role of a teacher who has different characters such as being strong and voluble to deal with the students.
Captain of the ship / Alpha male among the monkeys / Pacemaker
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am a calm but enthusiastic captain of the ship, as I direct the members by giving them clear instructions to follow me.
Motivator
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I would describe myself as a motivator because I must make my students motivated to study more so that they can learn more. I also try to keep up the class morale and involve every single student in the lesson.
Role model / Guide
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am a role model for language learners because I know how to study languages through my learning experience.
Farmer
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am like a farmer who is engaged in agriculture. My job involves seeding, growing and harvesting.
Prison officer
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I may be a prison officer because I watch out to make sure that "they" are working properly for a certain period of time.

* Each teacher described one or more metaphors. In some cases, only metaphoric term(s) was/were given. Metaphoric terms are listed in each category according to similarity of meaning. The descriptions listed may be representative of the metaphors given by more than one teacher.

Appendix F-2.

Table 9.

Constructivist metaphors (Questionnaire responses)*

Facilitator / Catalyst / Coordinator
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am a facilitator because I am helping them to learn by themselves. - I facilitate students' learning by showing how to be a successful language learner and help them to develop their confidence and self-esteem. - I am a facilitator because I help my students find how to learn more efficiently, through discussing problems and giving advice. - I often become a catalyst and help them to grow by themselves. I want to help them to expand their potential through delivering learner-centred classes. - I take the role of a coordinator who prompts learners' self-learning.
Parents / Kindergarten teacher / Adviser / Counsellor / Informant / Nurturer
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am like a parent because I always try to understand them through communication and give them advice when it is necessary. - I play the role of either a mother or a father because I discipline my children as well as help them to learn through interacting and communicating with them. - I am the mother of a child who has not yet started talking. I try to talk to the child even if he/she may or may not understand what I say to him/her, and encourage the child but not force him/her to follow me. - I am like a kindergarten teacher because I inculcate my students with new information. I also look after those who are beginners in learning with little knowledge. - I am like a counsellor or a nurturer who gives advice to those who are in the process of growing.
Dog trainer / Swimming instructor
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am a very skilled dog trainer because I have to constantly motivate, encourage and praise them, especially those who are beginners. - I am a swimming instructor who sometimes asks my students to swim freestyle or challenge them to swim in deep water. I help my students to solve problems when they encounter difficulties in the sea. One day, I want to see them with my own eyes swimming well in the sea without any problems.
Helper / Assistant
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am either a helper or an assistant as I deliver student-centred lessons in which I help them to learn.
Friend
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am like a friend to my students [studying at University] because I try to avoid developing a vertical relationship with them.
Learner
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am a learner because I observe how my students learn, and I also learn through teaching them.

* Each teacher described one or more metaphors. In some cases, only metaphoric term(s) was/were given. Metaphoric terms are listed in each category according to similarity of meaning. The descriptions listed may be representative of the metaphors given by more than one teacher.

Appendix F-3.

Table 10.

Situative/socio-historic metaphors (Questionnaire responses)*

Social engineer
- I am a social engineer because my job involves designing and creating the parts that I need to use in the classroom, dealing with people instead of machines.
Scientist
- I may have to be a scientist as I need to analyse the present phenomena, understand them, and provide the information obtained through analysis to the people involved in the phenomena.
A bridge between cultures
(no further description)

* Each teacher described one or more metaphors. In some cases, only the metaphoric term(s) was/were provided.

Appendix G:
Questionnaire Responses on Work Conditions
for Teaching in New Zealand

Table 11.

Important work conditions for teaching in New Zealand (Questionnaire responses)*

Secured job
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Being able to have regular income - No pressure on finding another job
Fair treatment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less stressful due to the simple human relations compared to the Japanese society - Having not so much concern about hierarchy or towards senior teaching staff - Your competency comes first before being seniors or juniors - Friendly and democratic working environment - Fair treatment by the management at school
Getting support
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Having enough budget to purchase textbooks and other teaching materials - Schools recognize our achievement and encourage upgrading our skills through PD - Being able to concentrate on teaching and to seek for the support available at school - No need to get involved in other areas such as solving problems of students' serious misbehaviour - Being able to get computer support when it is necessary - Support from the network of Japanese teachers in New Zealand - Support and funding available from the Japanese government
Flexibility in teaching
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Having freedom in teaching - Being able to demonstrate flexibility in class as a native speaker teacher - Being able to allow students to challenge to go beyond the curriculum levels
Student feedback
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Regularly receiving student direct feedback - Students showing appreciation towards my teaching - Including us teachers to celebrate some occasions at a gathering
Teaching conditions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Being able to teach a language for communication rather than teaching how to answer the questions for entrance exams - Having small size classes, which makes it effective to teach languages
Finding out the student results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Being able to see students making progress through my teaching - Students showing their interests in going to Japan to study more - Having students who show achievement in Japanese in various ways - Finding out my students that I taught using Japanese at workplace
Extra benefits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enjoying knowing about other cultures through teaching students from various countries - Being able to widen personal views through interacting with students in New Zealand - Increasing the opportunities for learning the ways that work in the New Zealand society - Being able to get to know more people in the society

* In the questionnaire, many of the teachers described one or more work conditions, while a few teachers described none.